The Nation.

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The Week.

Very ungraciously, and with many ifs and buts, the Republican members of the Ways and Means Committee have at last agreed on a proposal for Cuban reciprocity. The details of it are grudging and unsatisfactory; but they are scarcely worth stopping over now, since every one knows that the measure will receive its final form in the Senate. The great thing is to have driven the small and small-minded junta in control of the business of the House to admit that we are morally bound to grant Cuba tariff reductions. Rates and time of going into effect will be determined later and elsewhere; to have made the reluctant and timid Committee go so far as it has in defying its protectionist tyrants, is triumph enough for the day. The victory is really Mr. Roosevelt's, who has shown the astonished Congressmen what a President can do who, when he says "plain duty," means it, and sticks to it, and drives it home to the consciences of others.

Several of the Senators who hate civil-service reform as the devil does holy water, took occasion of the debate on the Census Bill to free their bosoms of long-pent woes on that subject. Senator Stewart came out strong on the intolerable "mystery" and "secrecy" of the civil-service examinations. How men passed them, why they were then appointed to office, offered painful difficulties to his brooding mind. Just let Senators and Representatives have all the appointments, and see how plain and above-board the whole thing would be—no intrigues, no whisperings, no back-door bargainings, but simple merit coming to its own! As for Senator Gallinger, he took up again his ancient and bitter parable. Civil servants protected in their offices by law were to him the one unclean thing in politics. Why, there are clerks in the departments, credited to New Hampshire, who do not "go home to vote"! Worse than that, they "do not contribute for political purposes"! Of course, to the Gallinger intellect, it is clear that "there ought to be some way of weeding them out." But, for a real Tammany outburst, commend us to the cry of Senator Scott against what he called "civil service," to which, he said, he "was opposed from the beginning." "It will soon be," he shouted, "that we will [shall] not need the service of Congress at all. The Civil-Service Commissioners will be the people who will run this country." Such was the animus, half ignorance, half malice, of the men who aimed a blow at civil-service reform in the Census Bill, which President Roosevelt is under the highest obligation to nullify.

Senator Tillman richly deserves expulsion for his passionate assault upon his colleague, Senator McLaurin, in open session of the Senate, but apparently some way will be found, short of that, to "purge" him of contempt and restore him to good standing in the "most august assembly on earth." No provocation can excuse so gross a breach of the rules of the Senate, to say nothing of the manners of a gentleman. The South Carolinian's antecedents, with the fierce methods so long used by him in fighting his way to the front in his own State, have evidently made him quite too ready both with tongue and fist. It must be admitted—and in saying this we are only following the opinion of some of the best Republican Senators—that Mr. Tillman has greatly improved since coming to Washington, and, in many ways, has given promise of becoming a useful legislator; but so long as he is still subject to such bursts of ferocity, his place is obviously not in the Senate of the United States. We have seen in that body too many representatives of the half-horse, half-alligator type to expect perfect courtesy from all its members; but open brawling, with bloody noses and blackened eyes, is scarcely the kind of thing the Senate would like to exhibit to Prince Henry as a sample of the manners of our statesmen.

The President has now spoken the last official word in the Schley controversy, and his decision is a happy mixture of sound judgment and shrewdness. He brought to his task a fresh mind and a practised power of expression. The skill of the literary man surely stood him in good stead when he wrote that the present appeal to him was "in effect an appeal from the action of President McKinley," and when he announced his own finding to be that "President McKinley did substantial justice" in recognizing Sampson as commander-in-chief at Santiago, and in recommending for him a greater advance than for Schley. Can you be sure that you are not an anarchist if you object to such a verdict? Equally ingenious is Mr. Roosevelt's review of the actual course of the battle. He had to intervene in an angry dispute as to which one of two men was the "hero" of the fight. His answer is "Neither: it was a captain's fight." Mr. Roosevelt has the air of putting aside as of small account the findings of the Board of Inquiry in regard to matters occurring before the battle. The appeal to him was on other points. Moreover, he remarks that Schley's offences had been technically "condoned." Yet we do not expect the Schley partisans to glory excessively in this part of the President's memorandum. It is really an approval of the grave charges made against Schley in his conduct of the preliminary operations. As to all of them President Roosevelt quietly remarks, "I am satisfied that on the whole the Court did substantial justice." That is to say, he agrees with it in thinking that Admiral Schley was guilty of terrible lapses as an officer, and of conduct unbecoming a gentleman. To say that these "offences" were "condoned" is cold comfort for a popular hero *sans reproche*.

The Supreme Court has decided, in the action brought by Gov. Van Sant in behalf of the State of Minnesota to prevent the merging of the Northern Pacific and Great Northern Companies, that it has no jurisdiction, and that the bill of complaint cannot be amended so as to confer jurisdiction. Therefore, the case drops without any indication of an opinion touching the main controversy involved in the merger. The essence of the controversy is whether the merger is in the nature of a monopoly, which the law of the land, both State and Federal, aims to prevent. Monday's decision was of a technical nature, interesting to lawyers, indeed, but not to the public in general.

The announcement is made from Washington, by the Attorney-General himself, that a suit will shortly be begun by him to test the legality of the merger of the Northern Pacific and Great Northern Railway Companies. Further, that the President requested his opinion as to the legality of the merger, and that he had recently given his opinion that it violates the provisions of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act of 1890, whereupon the President directed that he take suitable action to test the question judicially. In so doing, the President is, of course, moved by something more than mere curiosity as to the legal bearings of a new form of corporate enterprise. In the course of argument in the case brought by the Attorney-General of Minnesota against the merger, one of the judges asked the learned counsel of the Northern Securities Company whether there was any reason why the system of merging might not be carried on till all the railroads in the United States were consolidated. The reply was that no such reason existed in the mind of the counsel, but that he thought it very unlikely that merging would ever be carried to such an extreme. That colloquy probably

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had its influence in deciding the President to take some step to show that the Republican party is not altogether remiss, as has been charged by leading Democrats, in using such powers as the law has supplied for curbing the Trusts and combines which have so greatly multiplied of late. Thus politics is at the bottom of the suit which the Attorney-General has announced his intention to begin, but it is politics in the wide sense of the nation's purpose to find out where it stands in reference to these huge aggregations of capital, which seem to menace the orderly and customary progress of industry and social growth.

The Anti-Trust Act, under which the Attorney-General will proceed, was passed by Congress in 1890. It declares that every contract or combination, in the form of Trust or otherwise, in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States or with foreign nations is illegal, and may be proceeded against in the courts of the United States by the district attorneys, under the direction of the Attorney-General, for the purpose of restraining, preventing, and prohibiting violations of the act. The question to be considered by the court, therefore, is whether the Northern Securities Company is a contract or combination in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States. Of course, this point was duly considered by the legal advisers of the company before the merger was agreed upon. They contend that the holders of the shares of the Northern Pacific and Great Northern Companies have the right to put their holdings in a safe-deposit box or common receptacle, under an agreed custodian, and that no court can disturb them in such ownership and disposition of their shares. They say that the only difference between such custody and that of a corporate holding like the Northern Securities Company is that, in the former case, the death of the holders would release the securities and dissolve the agreement, whereas in the latter no such mishap would occur. The vital difference, therefore, is that in the one case the agreement is temporary, and in the other it is or may be perpetual. In its essence it is the difference between ordinary holding and mortmain, which, as lawyers know, is a material difference.

A little second thought will, we think, convince even the Wall Street interests which were put so much out of countenance on Thursday, that the Administration's movement to test the Northern Securities combination is desirable. The plain facts are that a company with $400,000,000 capital is on the eve of beginning business and distributing its shares to investors; and that a severe prohibitory law exists which may or may not cover this organization. On this second point eminent lawyers are known to differ, and no final decision can be had outside the Federal courts. Considering the consequences that might ensue were the test to be applied when the company had been long in active operation, and when, presumably, a number of other companies had been organized on similar lines, it would seem that the question could not be pushed to a settlement too soon. This we believe to be the feeling of lawyers generally, and it is certainly the feeling of the thoughtful public. The people at large, in fact, have a further stake in such a judicial test. The Northern Securities project may be beneficial and innocuous. But it is not denied that the theoretical powers under that charter, in the line of possible control over competition, are all but unlimited. This being so, the very same corporate device may conceivably be used, at any time, by promoters whose purposes would be both dangerous and harmful.

Secretary Hay's formal protest against the secret convention between China and Russia is a diplomatic move of the first importance. Forwarded on the 1st of February, although first published on Thursday last by the *Sun*, it anticipated by some days the publication of the Anglo-Japanese alliance, the moral effect of which it undoubtedly strengthens. Secretary Hay has an interest of a very personal sort in this negotiation, for it was his initiative and patience which, in the spring of 1900, gained assurances from all the Powers, including Russia, that the open door would be maintained in China. The correspondence, which was chiefly concerned with foreign "spheres of influence" and leased territory in the Chinese Empire, is now of exceptional interest, since Russia principally was affected by this international agreement. Secretary Hay, beyond uniform tariff regulations, desired assurances that it was not the purpose of Russia "to interfere with other nations, and that our citizens would continue to enjoy within said leased territory all the rights and privileges guaranteed them under existing treaties with China." It is interesting, in view of subsequent events, to recall that Mr. Hay named to the Russian Foreign Office, as the first Powers which had fallen in with the American proposal, the future allies England and Japan. Count Muravieff met Secretary Hay's note of September 6, 1899, very squarely in the matter of tariffs; in the matter of general commercial concessions the Russian Foreign Minister merely said that, in the territory (read Mantchuria) which lay beyond the districts already leased to Russia, "the Imperial Government had no intention whatever of claiming any privileges for its own subjects, to the exclusion of other foreigners." This assurance is Secretary Hay's warrant for protesting against the exclusive concession of railway and mining rights in Mantchuria to Russian companies. His intention is not primarily political, but commercial.

Gov. Taft concluded on Thursday his testimony before the Senate Committee regarding the situation in the Philippines. His appearance at the national capital has been a great disappointment to those who welcomed his coming as that of an almost omniscient being, whose views as to the proper policy of our Government would command universal acceptance. Practically all that he has said may be reduced to this, that he and his associate Commissioners, and other Americans who may be sent, from time to time, to the Philippines, must be trusted to govern the islands as they think best; and that it is not only impertinent, but intolerable, that anybody here should criticise anything they may do, or, indeed, talk about the matter in any way, since any talk is pretty sure to do harm. Gov. Taft has been a judge of high reputation, but he knows little about the American character if he supposes that such Imperialistic rule will be sanctioned by the people. The truth is, that the feeling in this country in favor of giving the Filipinos their independence is now decidedly stronger than it was before the Governor began testifying, and the Anti-Imperialists are much indebted to him for the stimulus which he has given their cause.

Like Gov. Taft's statement to the Philippine Committee, Secretary Root's letter to Senator Lodge in defence of the army admits that there have been many cases of sporadic ill-treatment of Filipinos by American soldiers. This is all that has ever been charged by the critics of the war in the Philippines. It was quite unnecessary for Mr. Root, or any one else, to show that the orders to the army have always been against the practice of cruelties or barbarous methods of warfare. The rules of war have long laid down certain actions, such as the poisoning of wells, the shooting down of prisoners, etc., as beyond the pale of civilized warfare. The military authorities in every country inform their troops upon these points, but whether the under officers and the soldiers live up to their orders depends entirely upon the discipline of each army. According to Secretary Root, some forty-four officers, soldiers, and camp-followers have so far been tried for illegal actions, and of these no less than thirty-nine have been convicted. How many more have gone undetected cannot even be estimated. Unfortunately, the nature of the country, the fact that it is against "niggers" that our troops are fighting, and their frequently being split up into detachments of five

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or ten without an officer, allow many an opportunity for misbehavior which is never heard of by the high officials. That there is very grave provocation in the undoubted cruelty and misbehavior of the Filipinos, the Secretary asserts, and no one will deny; but no misconduct on the part of the owners of the Philippines will excuse the American soldier who lowers himself to their level.

The American Newspaper Publishers' Association, at its annual meeting on Thursday, passed the subjoined resolution:

"Resolved, That the American Newspaper Publishers' Association ask Congress to abolish the duty on wood pulp, mechanical ground wood, and lumber used in the manufacture of paper, and that the duty on news print paper be reduced."

This resolution expresses, we think, the unanimous wish of the press of the United States, and is, in itself, a reasonable proposition. The material for the manufacture of wood pulp (spruce logs) is becoming scarce, so that, under the normal relations of supply and demand, the price of paper must rise. The very scarcity of the material favors a combination of the paper manufacturers. As soon as the latter can control the supply, they can advance the price, and may be forced to do so, even against their will. The publishers, as a general rule, cannot advance the price of their newspapers without incurring great risks. A one-cent newspaper, for example, cannot raise its price to two cents without danger of losing the bulk of its circulation, yet a small advance in the price of white paper may make it impossible to sell at one cent per copy without loss. The entire press of the country is facing the problem of an advance in the price of its raw material, which will come soon, unless the supply of wood pulp can be increased.

No such increase of supply is possible except from foreign countries. Canada and Norway have large forests of the kind of timber suitable for wood pulp, and are able to produce pulp itself cheaper than it can be made here. Under the Dingley tariff, logs and blocks of wood for the manufacture of pulp are admitted free, but wood pulp, if bleached, is subjected to a duty of one-quarter cent per pound, dry weight. The rate for unbleached pulp produced by the mechanical process is one-twelfth cent, and by chemical process one-sixth cent, per pound. The duty on print papaper is three-tenths cent per pound. There is a senseless provision in the law that, if any country shall impose an export duty on pulp wood, an equivalent amount shall be levied as an additional duty on wood pulp imported from such country. This provision, foolish in any case, is especially so in the case of a country which has an insufficient supply of the article in question. The export duty puts an obstacle in the way of the importing country which is seeking an additional supply. The countervailing duty doubles the obstacle, without any gain to anybody. The tariff combine will resist the change, not because the duty on wood pulp is of any particular consequence, but lest the opening of any crevice in the wall shall lead to wider breach. For the same reason that Mr. McKinley's reciprocity treaties were throttled, the movement for free wood pulp will be resisted and defeated unless the newspapers solemnly tell their Congressmen that they will oppose the renomination and reëlection of every one who votes against the measure. The Illinois Press Association seems to have reached this determination. Nothing short of this will be of any effect.

Prince Charming himself could not have made happier first impressions than has Henry of Prussia. A right democratic prince, with a true sailor's affability and frank address, he has shown an intuitive perception of the real nature of his mission. This is simply that of the bearer of cordial greetings from one great nation to another. Mystified foreign observers will not believe this, and even in England the notion seems to be held that the Prince may quietly make a treaty with President Roosevelt of a sort to revolutionize international relations. Saying nothing of the ludicrous misunderstanding involved in this, it shows how incredible it is to a certain order of intellect that trouble should be taken in the name of plain friendship. But it is purely as a friend that the Prince comes, and only as such that he gets his hearty welcome. And, come to think of it, this is really better and more significant than any treaty or alliance. Instinctive sympathies and spontaneous good will cannot be reduced to writing or put into a binding contract; but when they exist, as they now do between Germany and the United States, everything which serves to emphasize and heighten them, as does Prince Henry's visit, is an event to make glad the hearts of all lovers of peace.

Lord Rosebery's final announcement of his purpose to set up for himself, in opposition to Campbell-Bannerman and the bulk of the Liberal party, has an unfortunate appearance of being a step to which he was goaded by his critics and importuned by his friends, rather than led by his own courage and instinct of leadership. During the weeks since his Chesterfield speech, he has been letting I dare not wait upon I would, apparently hoping that the Liberal party would gravitate his way. Now that he has found the party organization still indisposed to throw over Irish home rule, and not inclined to adopt his views of the Boer war, he reads himself out, more in mortification than in boldness. He will doubtless form a Liberal "cave" for the present, but the real question is what he will do next. Some think his aim will be to detach the Liberal Unionists from the Conservatives. But this will be difficult. Joseph Chamberlain will have something to say about that, and he is a politician far more astute than Rosebery, besides possessing a daring and adroitness to which that nobleman can lay no claim. And Chamberlain has already gone out of his way to show that he will have neither part nor lot with Rosebery. The latter's idea of peace proposals he called "wild and whirling words," and he even gibed in the Commons at one of Rosebery's catchwords—"that great and glorious word, efficiency," he said, mockingly. Rosebery is young, as English statesmen go, and may hope to live long enough to be Prime Minister again, at the head of some party or other; but the immediate effect of his action can only be to make him a more impossible Liberal leader than ever.

Spain has known little but political and industrial upheavals since 1898, yet the present troubles in Catalonia, which seem to be expected to spread to other parts of the kingdom, appear more threatening than anything that has gone before. Radicals and Socialists, with leanings towards anarchy, have long swarmed in Barcelona, but why, on account of their fierce outbreaks, should the Government be thinking of declaring martial law over the whole of Spain? This grave and even panicky view of the situation would argue that the discontent which so many observers of Spanish affairs have been reporting is more widespread and deep-seated than was suspected. Taxation, as usual, is at the root of one great popular grievance. The food tax, known as the *consumo*, which is levied on all food (except bread) entering towns, has been a cause of general dissatisfaction and outcry. This tax yields for the national Treasury about $13,000,000, and for the municipalities something like $10,000,000 in addition. The municipal rate varies, though the Treasury portion is fixed, so that the tax rests more heavily upon some cities than upon others. On wine, for example, the *consumo* tax in Barcelona is said to be over 400 per cent. on the original cost, while in Madrid it is about 200. Taxes so grievous and unequal seem as if ingeniously devised to provoke a revolt. When we reckon in the industrial depression in the manufacturing provinces, the anarchistic propaganda pushed partly by a foreign element, the general instability of the Government, and the *malaise* of the country, it is not, perhaps, surprising that we hear of such extensive disturbances in the Peninsula.

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MR. ROOSEVELT'S FIRST VETO.

President Roosevelt has not yet vetoed—but can there be any doubt that he will veto, when it reaches him?—the bill (H. R. 10,308) to "provide for a permanent census office." A permanent census office may be desirable, but no bill establishing it which incidentally aims a deadly blow at the merit system should receive the signature of Theodore Roosevelt. Exactly that is what the bill does. By providing that all the clerks now employed in the Census Office shall be taken into the classified service, it proposes to foist a thousand or twelve hundred Congressional protégés into offices which, under the civil-service rules, would go to the persons who, by test of open competition, have won their way to the head of the eligible lists. It is, in short, a flagrant attempt to "beat" and discredit civil-service reform. But that means, of course, that it is also an attempt to discredit President Roosevelt; and he, convinced and committed civil-service reformer that he is, will know how to fling back the insult in the teeth of the spoilsmen who offer it to him.

There is no concealment about the nature of the bill. Its demoralizing aim was clearly pointed out in both House and Senate by the handful of genuine civil-service reformers to be found in either. Representative Moody indignantly denounced the job. Senator Lodge, with no flaming zeal, explained its vicious tendency. The case stands as follows: There are some 2,298 persons at present employed in the Census Office. About 800 are to be retained in the permanent census. The temporary employees number 145, and they will be dropped. There remain, therefore, fully 1,200 employees who, by the bill, are to be carried over to the classified service. Now what does that mean? It means that these clerks, without examination, are to be put over the heads of those who have passed the civil-service examinations and are on the eligible lists waiting to be certified, as the law directs, to the first vacancies that may occur in the Government departments. If you are "in the classified service," though unemployed, you are entitled to a "transfer" to any office falling vacant, with preference over a candidate merely on the eligible list. But who are these specially favored individuals? Why, they are Congressional appointees, thrust upon the Director of the Census by political influence, and now smuggled into the classified service by the back-door of tricky legislation. There was no disguise about the business. In either house the bill was put through amidst jeers at civil-service reform—"this so-called civil-service reform," was Senator Gallinger's taunt—and in a hilarious and unblushing revel of the spoilsmen.

The bill has gone to conference, but if it comes to the President with this nefarious assault upon civil-service reform still included in it, Mr. Roosevelt is bound to veto it. He has some regard for his own consistency, if Congressmen have none for theirs. If there is anything for which he stands in public life, it is for an impartial and unflinching maintenance of the merit system. The man who made so heroic a fight at Albany to get "the starch" put back into the State civil-service laws, is not going to sit idly by and let Congress make the national civil-service laws look as limp as one of Gov. Black's starchless collars on a muggy day in July. The President is under obligation to see that good faith is kept with those who, all over the country, have accepted the Government's invitation and taken the civil-service examinations. The tacit, the well-nigh explicit promise to these successful persons at the head of the eligible lists is that they shall be certified to the 600 or 700 vacancies occurring every year. But now a swinish Congress steps in to put over their heads enough unexamined favorites to fill all the vacancies for two years. Meanwhile, the eligible list is good only for a year, and the result would be, not only to deprive those on it of their implied right to appointment, but to force them to take their examinations over again, if they still desired to take service under a Government capable of so gross an injustice to them.

This is the spoilsman's game, the politician's double-dealing, which President Roosevelt is bound to block. None of the ordinary reasons against vetoing an important bill apply in this case. It is not the end of a session. The bill can be revived in decent form and made law. And the argument of the expediency of not offending Congressmen with whom the President has to cooperate, is not one which we should advise any one to address to Mr. Roosevelt when it is so clear a case of right and wrong. He would simply take down a copy of his 'Strenuous Life' and read to the tempter a few ringing sentences: "There are certain subjects on which no man can compromise." For Theodore Roosevelt, civil-service reform is one of them. "When a man in public life pledges himself to a certain course of action, he shall, as a matter of course, do what he said he would do, and shall not be held to have acted honorably if he does otherwise." By word and deed President Roosevelt is pledged up to the hilt to withstand all such attacks upon the merit system as that which the census bill carries with it, and we are therefore confident that he will courageously meet those enemies of his, and of reform, and let them feel the weight of his veto.

It is a critical hour for the whole reform. The demoralization under President McKinley was insidious and pervasive. This latest cynical attempt to make a mockery of the civil-service laws is the natural result. The clerks were put into the Census Office as so much spoils, and the excuse was given that their employment was special and temporary. Now we see the whole body of them shoved into the classified service. If the President consents to this breach in the defences, soon the whole fortress will be swarming with spoilsmen, and civil-service reform will be made an end of. The time is ripe for a bold and vigorous and conscientious reformer like the President to call a halt. A smashing veto message now would do more for the cause than all the insincere political platforms in the world. It is as if the President's enemies in Congress had determined to challenge his metal. Prince Henry has been reading 'American Ideals'; no finer spectacle could the President offer him of the ideal in action, of civic courage leaping to the defence of principle, than that of withstanding single-handed the rush of the embattled spoilsmen, and taking his stand, as he does in *Life's* cartoon last week, upon civil-service reform, with the cry, "This rock shall fly from its firm base as soon as I."

HUMILIATING THE HOUSE.

"You must know what privileges you have. Not to speak every one what he listeth, or what cometh into his brain. But your privilege is 'Aye' or 'No.'"

Such was the language of a Lord Keeper of the Great Seal, in the Tudor days, to the House of Commons. It would be regarded now as an absolute suppression of the liberties of the Commons of England. Yet we have lived to see that lusty child of the Mother of Parliaments, the House of Representatives of the United States, held down to the bare privilege of voting "Aye" or "No," with scarce a murmur heard. Its haughty Keeper of the Great Seal is no Tudor courtier, but its own Committee on Rules. That body reported a "rule" last week that the pending bill for the repeal of war taxes should be voted on without amendment. A perfunctory debate was to be allowed—though this was cut off by Representative Richardson's motion to proceed at once to voting, since, as he asked, "If we are really gagged, why should we try to talk?"—but any amendment, large or small, was to be immediately declared out of order. There could not well be a rougher way of reminding the House to what a vanishing point its old privileges have been whittled.

Yet another such rule, it is said, is to be put in force when the bill for the relief of Cuba is laid before the House. Members will be allowed to speak their minds about that measure and to vote for or against it; but will not be permitted to change it, to improve it, in any particular. Evidently automata would, under such circumstances, serve as well as living men, with brains and voices,

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in the capacity of Representatives. The Committee on Rules could then, a little more conveniently than now, press a button, and let the roll-call do the rest. One has only to look to the other end of the Capitol to see the contrast between such slavish methods and the old tradition of free discussion and untrammelled decision. The Senate passed the Philippine Tariff Bill on Monday. Debate had been perfectly free; the right of offering amendments was unrestricted. Many amendments were, in fact, offered. Some of them were adopted, others voted down; but the sense of the Senate was fairly taken.

That is the fundamental objection to this new style of putting manacles on the House: it defeats the great end of every deliberative assembly—namely, to ascertain "the sense of the meeting." The leaders of the House refuse to take the sense of the House. They devise a rule, rather, to prevent that sense from obtaining expression. No one can doubt, for example, that the Babcock bill for putting iron and steel on the free list would have commanded a majority in the House, if the House had been allowed to vote on it. As an amendment to the bill repealing war taxes, it would have been perfectly germane. Many Representatives were eager to offer it as such; more than a majority were ready to vote for it. But no, said the Lord Keepers of the Committee on Rules, all you can do is to say "Aye" or "No" when the bill is put on its passage, and all your amendments will go out on a point of order. That marks the depth of humiliation to which the House has been brought.

We know it is said that the House did not need to adopt the obnoxious rule. It could have refused to sanction the proposal of the Speaker and his satellites of the Committee on Rules. Messrs. Henderson and Dalzell humbly profess to be "the servants of the House," and will allege that, if it wears any fetters, they are self-imposed. This has a technical plausibility, but does not go to the heart of the case. If the House had rejected the rule, then the bill would not have been called up at all. The Committee knew that both sides of the House were desirous of passing a bill of some sort. It practically said to the members, "Very well; take the bill exactly as we present it, without the change of a letter or a comma, or else you will not get it at all." It may be said that the House had still a remedy. It could have elected a new Speaker, and thus got a new Committee on Rules. But that would have been practically a revolution; and it was upon its impossibility that the Committee cunningly counted when it asked the House to cut itself off from the power of amendment. The only alternative was to revolutionize the organization of the House. It is substantially true, therefore, that the creatures of the House have devised a scheme to make the House impotent.

Speaker Henderson, in that pitifully weak letter of his to an Iowa constituent, innocently revealed another way in which the House, under his leadership, is sinking into discredit. Speaking of tariff revision, of which he said that, as respects "a few schedules, like steel and glass, I would [should] like to see it done," he remarked:

> "You may not be aware that under the rules of the House we would [should] be able, undoubtedly, to pass a bill that might touch a very few items, putting some on the free list or reducing; but while, under the rules of the House, this might be accomplished, the Senate has no such rules, and there it would probably broaden out into a general revision of the tariff. That all of us dread and fear."

There it is again: the sense of the House must not be taken. Representatives cannot speak their wish and work their will, lest, if they do, something happen elsewhere. The House is to live in terror of the Senate. The House has "rules," to act like bit and bridle, but the lawless Senate may actually do what the majority of its members desire! That is the spectacle which frightens Speaker Henderson. He has so long been accustomed to voting to order, and only on questions which the Committee on Rules deems it wise to let the House consider, that the thought of open discussion and free voting fills him with alarm.

It is clear, however, that it is only a bogey at which he is terrified. The Senate *has* its rules. The majority of the Senate *can* have its way. This we have seen again in the case of the Philippine Tariff Bill. If the Republican Senators were in earnest, they could effect that tariff revision which Speaker Henderson affirms to be so desirable but so impossible. Every one knows this. And every one knows, also, that what the Speaker and his protectionist mentors are afraid of is, that the thing will get out of hand if brought up at all. They know that a Republican revolt is muttering in the West, and they fear that many Republican votes would be found united to Democratic if a tariff revision bill could be got squarely before the House. So they go about to deny the House the right to vote at all on tariff revision, apparently unconscious that they are thus humiliating the House which they profess to honor, and doing all in their power to enhance the dignity and importance of the Senate, which they profess to dread. If any one inquires why it is that the Senate has so greatly risen in popular esteem during the past ten years, while the House has sunk, the true answer will point to those timid and narrow-minded leaders of the House who have been so successful in making it a contemptible second in all great matters of national legislation.

A NEW SCHEME TO AVOID LABOR TROUBLES.

There has never been a time when any scheme for securing better relations between capital and labor, and especially for avoiding a recourse to strikes and lockouts, was so sure of sympathetic attention as now. The public has grown weary of the suffering inflicted upon it, as well as upon the parties immediately concerned, when differences end in bitter controversies, and has become convinced that there must be some better way of settling such disputes than by fights. Hopeful progress is now making with a plan for establishing a central court of settlement and appeal for employers and employees in the various building trades of New York city. There are dozens of these trades—carpenters, masons, iron-workers, stone-workers, plumbers, plasterers, and so on; indeed, the outsider must be surprised to learn how many different kinds of occupation there are which have to do, in one way or another, with building operations. The number of employers reaches high into the thousands, and there are scores of thousands of workmen. The establishment of any system which would secure peace and harmony in this great army would consequently be an event of the first importance in the industrial world.

Perhaps the most serious obstacle to the securing and maintenance of the right relations has been the lack of any machinery for preventing a difference from ending in a strike before an attempt at arbitration is made. The employees "get mad" and stop work, or the employers say that they "can't stand such nonsense," and order a lockout; each side feels indignant at the other, and does not want to be the first to back down; if arbitration is proposed, it is hard to agree upon terms and to secure the proper referees, and the controversy drags on for weeks, quite likely to end in no material gain for the party which precipitated the trouble.

The fundamental feature of the present scheme is the establishment of a permanent body for the settlement of all questions as they arise—a body constituted when both sides are cool, and considering issues submitted by people who still remain cool. This "central court of settlement and appeal" is to have three salaried members, chosen for a term of not less than three years, who will be the nucleus of a larger body of nine men, six of whom will be constantly shifting. One of the central three is to be chosen by the workmen in the various building trades, acting through a committee; the second by the employers, acting in the same fashion; and the third by these two. It is hoped and expected that men of good ability and high standing will be secured for these positions, as their work would seem attractive and their pay would be

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liberal. On a question being raised in any trade—as, for example, the painters'—the three permanent members of the court would be reinforced by three men representing the employers and three representing the employees in this trade, making nine in all. These six temporary members would bring expert knowledge of the special conditions affecting their trade to supplement the grasp of general principles affecting all trades possessed by the three who sit permanently. The nine would decide, say, the terms on which the employing painters and their employees should work for the coming year, and then these six temporary members would withdraw, to be replaced by six representing the carpenters, six who should act for the plasterers, and so on. When all trades have thus been through the court, announcement will be made of every agreement that has been reached, and these agreements will be the rule by which all who have to do with building operations, as employers and employed, are to be governed for the next twelvemonth.

Should any controversy arise as to whether either side in any trade is living up to the agreement, recourse would at once be had to the court. If, for instance, the steam-fitters should think they had a grievance against their employers, their three special representatives, with the three representing their employers, would join the standing three, and the nine would render their decision after hearing all the evidence and considering the merits of the case. Meanwhile the employers in every trade would be pledged not to order a lockout and the workmen not to order a strike, so that the development of a controversy need cause no interruption of work or inconvenience to the public.

The proposed court would have no legal authority. It would depend solely upon moral influence for the execution of its decrees. But it is believed that a hearty acceptance of the scheme by both sides in all of the many trades would give such weight to any decision of the body that neither side to a dispute submitted to it would challenge the odium involved in repudiating its authority. The development of the plan was intrusted, some months ago, to Mr. William H. Sayward, a well-known practical builder and public-spirited citizen of Boston, who organized the National Association of Builders, of which he is now the Secretary. He has had experience in such work as he is now doing, having devised a system of working relations between employers and employees in the building trades of Boston which has prevented any strikes in those trades for a number of years. He has presented the scheme to nearly all of the many employers' associations, and in every case has secured their cordial approval. It is now being submitted formally to all the labor unions in the various trades; and as many of their leaders have individually endorsed the idea, it is hoped that these bodies will also accept it. In that case it should be possible to put it in operation during the present year.

It would be over-sanguine to expect that any plan will immediately put an end to all troubles in any trade, and especially in so large a group of trades as is here involved. But there is warrant for great encouragement that a scheme which appears so reasonable and practicable should have been devised, and that so much progress should have been made toward carrying it out. This progress is in itself a sign that public opinion is enforcing its growing demand that industrial war must cease.

THE SHIP-SUBSIDY SCHEME.

The new Ship-Subsidy Bill is made up of two distinct parts, the first relating to mail subsidy, and the second to general subsidy. These are not only kept entirely distinct in the provisions of the act, but are quite distinct in their general principle. The mail subsidy purports to be given on the basis of *value received* by the Government; that is, it provides a certain special price for mail-carrying contracts. If the Government does not receive value for what it pays under this system, then the system has no justification, and the payment must be regarded as a mere bonus. The general subsidy has, on the other hand, no element of a direct return to the Government, and is merely in the nature of Government aid to a so-called infant industry.

The new bill amends the Mail-Subsidy Act of 1891 practically in only two particulars—that is, it increases the compensation to the vessels, and makes a different classification under which the largest mail subsidies can at present be paid only to the four vessels of the American Line of over 10,000 tons burden and capable of a speed of twenty knots. Senator Frye, who stands as sponsor for the new bill, states that the postal subsidy rates under this bill are about one-third larger than those now paid under the act of 1891. It is proper, therefore, to inquire whether the service which the Government has been receiving under the act of 1891 is of such a character as to justify this increase in the payment.

During the last fiscal year of the Post-Office Department, the American Line carried about 71,000,000 grams of letters and 641,000,000 grams of printed matter, for which the Government paid to that line, under the Postal Subsidy Act of 1891, $528,537. During the same year the Cunard Line carried almost twice that weight of letters (137,000,000 grams) and 835,000,000 grams of printed matter, receiving for the service only $213,103; and the White Star Line, which carried about 62,000,000 grams of letters and 326,000,000 grams of printed matter, received but $91,591. That is, the Government is now paying the American Line at a rate about three times as high as it pays the other lines for carrying the same mails, and the only change contemplated by the present bill is the increase of this rate of payment. It is quite unnecessary to comment on such a change in the law. The simple explanation of the change is, that the postal contract of the American Line is about to expire, and that it desires to have the contract (which is now unjustifiable, so far as the public interest is concerned) renewed on a more lucrative basis.

The sections of the bill providing for a general subsidy are rather brief, and have none of the safeguards against abuses which have been so much discussed. That is, there is nothing in the bill which will prevent an empty ship from collecting full subsidy. This will interest those who contend that subsidy should be paid only in proportion to the cargo carried. There is no provision which will secure the establishment of any new means of communication, or will prevent this Government bounty from going as a bonus to those who are already engaged in the shipping business, even though they provide no increased facilities for the public. There is the same old provision about corporations owning vessels; that is, so long as the corporation is formed here, its stock may be owned by foreigners, and the subsidy may all go as dividends to foreigners.

There is no adequate guarantee that the subsidy will not be given to foreign-built ships whenever Americans consider it for their interest to buy these ships and to obtain a special American registry for them, as has been done so often in the past. There is apparently the same exclusion of Panama business from the commerce called foreign, although a large part of the trade with the west coast of South America is conducted by way of Panama, and although this is a trade which it is especially to the interest of the United States to develop. The rate of this general subsidy is one cent per gross ton for each one hundred nautical miles sailed. At this rate a steamer of ten thousand gross tonnage will earn one dollar a mile, both on the outward voyage and on the return voyage. There is an addition of 25 per cent. to this subsidy for the first five years of the life of vessels hereafter to be built.

There is no discrimination whatever in this system. The ship that carries out a cargo of American-manufactured goods receives no more Government aid than a ship of the same size which brings in one thousand immigrants from Russia or the Mediterranean; it is simply a crude, indiscriminate handing out

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of public funds, with no attempt to recognize the fundamental principles behind all justifiable subsidies—if any are justifiable—that they should be given only in order to open avenues of commerce which do not already exist, and which could not be started without Government aid.

There is no limit as to the subsidy to be paid. It may be that for a year or two to come the amount will not exceed $9,000,000 per annum, the limit fixed by the old bill; but the serious effect of passing this bill would be that it would commit us to the principle that profits in shipping properly depend on Government aid, and not on economical conditions—that is, that foreign commerce is to be moved from the domain of business into the domain of politics. Does any one seriously think that, when once the country is committed to the doctrine that it is the duty of the Government to make foreign commerce profitable, at the expense of all other forms of business, the beneficiaries of the system will rest content with small subsidies? Has that been the history of pensions, or tariffs, or any other system of Government aid to individuals or classes? All signs point to an enormous increase in our foreign commerce. Our shipyards are blocked with business, and the official returns of the Treasury Department show a rapid growth of our trade in almost every direction. The question now is, Shall we go on and try to succeed in the field of the world's commerce by the means which are now giving us success, or shall we make success depend upon Government largesses and the efforts of the lobby?

THE JOHNS HOPKINS CELEBRATION.

Frequently the anniversary habit in our brand-new universities is about as naïve as the practice of that newly wedded pair who celebrated every week the coming round of Thursday, their wedding day, as an "anniversary." The completion of the twenty-fifth year of Johns Hopkins University and the retirement of its first President were, however, events so interesting that nobody will find their elaborate celebration other than fitting.

When President Gilman was called from the University of California to give shape to the indefinite bequest of Johns Hopkins, he came into unusual opportunities. The endowment, in that day of small things, was a generous one. The founder, being safely dead, required only gradual canonization, a far more facile and gracious service than that mollification and diplomacy to which presidents have frequently been driven in their dealings with living founders. The trustees, who had advised their eccentric associate to apply his fortune to the founding of a university and a hospital, were wise enough to confide absolutely the working out of this programme to the man of their choice. President Gilman, then, was free to found an institution unique in its day in America, of which productive scholarship should be the informing idea—free to take immediately the step which President Eliot, inspired even then by the same ambition, has since been able to take in the Harvard Graduate School.

Indeed, Johns Hopkins University, to educators of the old school, must have seemed a revolutionary enterprise. Nothing could have been more unlike an American college. The new school started with none but graduate students. To the older colleges, where genuine graduate students, except those in the professional schools, were scarcely admissible, this was a fatal putting of the cart before the horse. Then the new university lacked certain safeguards. No religious denomination vouched for it, nor any recognizable social tendency, while it conferred the strange degree, then usually "made in Germany," of Doctor of Philosophy. It made its start with a Virginian professor of Greek, late of the Confederate cavalry; a Baltimore editor; a young disciple of Huxley's; an eccentric English mathematician—with anybody who knew more about his given subject than anybody else. It manifested a sublime disregard for academic appearances and even comforts. It bought lavishly of books and scientific apparatus, but it set its handful of famous specialists to teaching in rookeries, chance-leased in the heart of the city. If the memories of these first eager days of close companionship between master and student have grown into a legend tenderly regarded of old Hopkinsians, at the time this complete ignoring of collegiate pomp and circumstance seemed almost suspicious.

From the very first, the University was forced to practise the virtue of renunciation. Omitting many subjects which are taught in the great universities of the world, it tried to give every subject in the best possible way. Probably many Americans, before the Johns Hopkins University naturalized the terms, knew that *Gründlichkeit* and the scholar's conscience were one and the same thing; and many of our scholars from an early period had exemplified in their work *wissenschaftliche Methode*. But this thoroughness and scientific method were still rather the possession of individual scholars than of institutions. For the new university was reserved the honorable part of first training systematically numbers of young scholars in the methods of pure research. For the first time in the century, it could fairly be said that America had a university which in quality, if not in scope, was the equal of any European institution of learning.

How this example became a leaven for the whole academic mass, how gradually, in spite of great and unmerited financial reverses, the university grew, here extending its older courses, there adding an undergraduate department and a medical school, is matter of recent record, and need only be recalled at this time. But a unique feature of Johns Hopkins life should not pass unmentioned: through the accident of its founder's residence, the University was set in a border city. Its unique character drew many students from the North and West; this, and its geographical situation, a far larger number from the South. The resulting association of men of diverse traditions and training was singularly advantageous. The Northerner came to see close at hand the sore problems left in the wake of the war; he came to recognize the admirable tenacity of purpose and the frequent heroism of the Southern young men, who, seeking the best education for themselves, carried back light and leading to their own people. He came, too, under the charm of the gracious social life of the South. Similarly, the Southerner gained in this contact. He soon lost certain religious and social prejudices, and came at least to admire the intellectual audacity and adaptability of the "Yankee," his efficiency and essential kind-heartedness. For twenty-five years now these young doctors have been scattering, chiefly to their own sections, but always a certain number of Northerners to the South, and vice-versa. Among these old Hopkinsians, professors mostly, and nearly all men of considerable prominence, there exists a strong fellow-feeling, and this academic comity has undoubtedly contributed, and will contribute, to the broader national comity which is to be.

The celebration last week was not only a tribute to the institution which has done so much to foster original research in America, but also a testimonial of a more personal sort to President Gilman, who turns over to younger hands the work he has shaped for a long future. It is characteristic of his manifold activities that he does not seek the repose he has so fairly earned, but is preparing to organize, in the fulness of his years, another and equally unprecedented foundation for research—the Carnegie Institution. No other man of our time has been so fortunate as to have the unhampered administration of two trusts of this character, and few educators have been privileged to accomplish a work at once so original and of so enduring value.

THE STRUGGLE FOR INDIVIDUALITY ON THE GERMAN STAGE.

BERLIN, February 9, 1902.

The German stage of the present day shows a curious mixture of high aspirations and imperfect fulfilment, of noble conceptions and brutal effects, of an ar-

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dent desire for truth, freedom, nature, and of a tame subservience to conventional devices and artificial sentiment. In the early nineties, when the first powerful productions of Sudermann and Hauptmann filled the air with joyous echoes of the striving for a heightened existence both of the individual and of society, we dreamed of a new classic era of dramatic literature close at hand. We hoped that the young German writers who so boldly and with such earnest conviction had taken up the gospel of Ibsen, Björnson, and Tolstoy, would soon rise to the full height of their masters, or perhaps even surpass them. For it seemed as though there were something in these young writers, a certain sense of measure and tradition, a certain reverence for the human past, that in all their tumultuous strivings would keep them on the path of true art and preserve them from the merely volcanic, which, especially in the Scandinavian writers, not infrequently destroys the pure æsthetic enjoyment of modern poetry.

These hopes, if I may be permitted to give to my own experience a somewhat wider application, have been sadly disappointed. Instead of pressing on toward the goal of an art embodying in vigorous, free, and impressive types the ideals of modern humanity, and thus holding up before the eyes of the present the life that is to come, the German dramatists, or most of them at least, have again fallen back to that position from which the whole movement of "Youngest Germany" started some fifteen years ago—the position of an essentially negative and pessimistic analysis and arraignment of existing conditions. That in taking this stand they give expression to a large and important part of the intellectual life of modern Germany, can hardly be denied; for the natural counterpart of the reigning imperialism and officialdom has been the growth of a public opinion so peevishly sensitive to even the slightest encroachments on personal rights, so eagerly insisting on free inquiry, so boldly—and often with such bitter sarcasm—exerting its function of a searching criticism of public affairs, as is scarcely to be found in countries where individual liberty is more firmly guarded. In no other country, for instance, would the artistic views of the chief of state have aroused such violent antagonism, or would his efforts at putting these views into practice have been received with such a flood of biting satire, as was the case with the Emperor's recent utterances on art addressed to the sculptors of his monumental gifts to the city of Berlin. Nor is it likely that the appointment of a Catholic professor of history beside that of a Protestant—which recently took place at the University of Strassburg—would in any other country have led to such a storm of indignation, such protestations of principle, such abuse of Government interference with professorial standards of impartial inquiry, as shook German academic circles some weeks ago.

As a reflex, then, of public affairs, the German drama of the last few seasons, disappointing as it is when considered from the point of view of ideal art, is still an extremely instructive phenomenon. The clash between the individual and society which, in one form or another, may be said to underlie all tragic situations in real life as well as in art, has received in the German drama even of very recent years some new and interesting impersonations. What seems to me regrettable is, that in hardly any of these recent dramas is there a ray of hope, a suggestion of a possible delivery from the social conflict except by self-destruction of the individual; that, on the contrary, this self-destruction is constantly being insisted upon in these dramas as the only and as a truly heroic solution, even where there seems not the slightest necessity for it, since a little more common sense and large-mindedness and a little less wilfulness and sentimentality would have obviated all difficulties.

A striking illustration of this drift towards the needlessly tragic and its painful results is a drama which is at present holding a prominent place in the repertory of almost every German theatre; which, moreover, through the award of the Grillparzer prize and a nearly unanimous approval of the leading critical reviews, has obtained the highest literary distinction. I refer to Otto Erich Hartleben's "Rosenmontag." The hero of this drama is a Prussian officer who falls a victim to the petty prejudices and hollow ambitions of caste. He is a dreamer, an idealist, a man to whom purity of heart is the highest demand of life. He has fallen in love with a simple burgher maiden, without realizing that, as long as he remains an officer, there can be no question of marriage with this girl. Two of his comrades, cousins of his, in whom the sense of family pride and social standing seems to have absorbed every other intellectual or emotional faculty, take it upon themselves to save him from embarrassing situations by acting the part of his Fate. First they separate him from the girl by bringing it about that he is for a time detached to another garrison. In leaving, he intrusts his love to their protection. This confidence they abuse by persuading the girl that he has become engaged to another, while at the same time representing to him that his love has broken her faith. The news of her alleged treachery prostrates him physically as well as mentally, and when, after a year of illness and agony, he actually becomes engaged to a rich society girl, this is clearly a symptom of his shattered ideals. Thus he returns to his old regiment, only to find out what a shameful trick has been played upon him. Now he is beside himself with rage and indignation. He has a violent rupture with his comrades; he defies the military code of honor; he takes his old love back, and, after a few days' revelling in bliss, ends his life together with hers.

Hackneyed and crude as this plot is, I am far from denying that it is worked out with unusual cleverness and brilliancy of dramatic invention. The officers' life, with its racy, frivolous jargon, its well-mannered and well-meaning inanity, with its jolly comradeship and its brutal conception of woman, is portrayed here with astonishing vividness and truthfulness. Although during the whole play we do not get beyond the limits of the barracks or the officers' casino, the only woman character of the plot being the deserted girl, there is not a moment of dulness or monotony in it. As an historical document, as a comprehensive and cutting satire on military life in Germany at the beginning of the twentieth century this drama is undoubtedly a notable achievement, and will stand in literary history by the side of such Storm-and-Stress productions as Wagner's "Die Kindermörderin" or Lenz's "Die Soldaten." All the more disappointing is it that the author, who knew so well how to castigate social foibles and depravities, should not have been happier in depicting genuine human feeling, that he should not have been able to create a hero capable of something besides ranting and fuming against military conventionalities and then blowing his brains out. There is really not the slightest reason in the world why this man, after he has found out that his love always has been and still is faithful to him, should not with a light heart bid good-bye to all these glittering frivolities, and begin, together with the woman of his choice, a new, serious, and happy life. Is an officer's life, then, everything, even in Germany? Is the only alternative left to this man really either to stifle the best instincts of his being or to follow the contemptuous advice of a comrade of his—"Then go to America and turn waiter"? And even this latter choice, would it not have been manlier and more genuinely human than this absurd refuge in the Nothing? How differently has Ibsen, in his "Enemy of the People," tackled a similar problem! How radiant and triumphant does the personality, in the midst of defeat, here stand out at the end against the unreasoning and unfeeling herd of the "solid majority"! In Hartleben's play, in spite of all the lofty talk and noble sentiment, there is at the end nothing left but moral numbness and submission to the dictates of an artificial etiquette.

I cannot bring myself to speak at length of a recent production of Sudermann's, which was first put on the boards of the Deutsches Theater last week, under the curious misnomer of "Es lebe das Leben!" For nothing could be more devoid of the real feelings for which life stands than this painfully thought-out parody of life; and it is truly saddening that a man who began his literary career in accents that reminded one of the young Schiller, who, even in his "Johannes" and "Die drei Reiherfedern," seemed to strive after the heights of life, should now stoop to the pseudo-tragedy of social scandals not a whit more uplifting or less mawkishly sentimental than the much abused plays of Kotzebue or Paul Lindau. What leads me to mention this doleful production here is the fact that it is another flagrant instance of that lack of a bold and consistent personality, along with and in spite of a certain attitude of protest against social tyranny, which seems to me responsible for the ultimate artistic failure of Hartleben's "Rosenmontag."

In Sudermann's play also the hero, or rather the heroine, sacrifices herself without any sufficient reason, nay, even without any intelligible purpose. She sacrifices herself, she thinks, in order to save the life of her lover, with whom fifteen years ago she had transgressed her marriage vows, and who since then has lived unsuspected in ideal friendship with herself and in close comradeship with her husband, until a sudden exposure brings the two men into irreconcilable conflict. But how is it pos-

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sible to think that this man, after her self-destruction, should take up life in the sense she wishes him—namely, as a champion of the Conservative cause against the destructive tendencies of Social Democracy, since, as he himself expresses it epigrammatically, he "must live on because he is dead"? She sacrifices herself also, she thinks, in order to rescue her husband from an impossible situation, apparently without realizing how little this sacrifice can do to atone for the protracted falsehood and lie of fifteen years. Finally, she sacrifices herself in order to keep the Conservative party from the scandal and confusion which would arise from an open conflict between the two men, both pillars of law and order; and again she seems to be entirely blind to the fact that nothing will more clearly reveal the "skeleton in the closet" of the Conservative party, and more directly and irretrievably hurt the cause of law and order, than her own suicide.

In short, the motives which actuate the events in this play are artificial to the last degree; and while there runs a hidden protest through it against the suppression of individuality demanded by the complicated moral code of the modern state, there appears not a single character in it who dares to be truly himself, and most of the characters (to borrow one of the author's own phrases) seem to be living in a prison which they themselves guard. A sorry turn, indeed, to be taken by the author of "Heimat."

It would be superfluous to dwell on other dramas of recent date, such as Philippi's "Das grosse Licht" and "Wohlthäter der Menschheit," which show this same curious mixture of individualistic leanings on the one hand and submission to social convention on the other. It is, however, worthy of mention, since it is characteristic of the whole state of contemporary German culture, that the only play of the last few years in which a powerful personality successfully asserts itself, is an educational play—Otto Ernst's comedy, "Flachsmann als Erzieher," a brave, timely, and amusing plea for individuality and common sense in the instruction of children. The way in which the ideas of Pestalozzi and Froebel are here given form in an inspired young teacher who fights to the end and maintains his ideals in spite of endless intrigue, slander, and malicious machinations on the part of his colleagues and superiors, is truly delightful; and the only pity is that the sphere of action in this piece is too narrow to give room for a really free and large artistic movement.

When will the German drama fulfil the prophetic message of fifteen years ago, free itself from the shackles of sentimentality and conventional formality, and rise to a really human representation of the great conflicts of modern life? Björnson's "Beyond Our Strength," which is being performed with such masterly skill in all the great German theatres, should point the way toward this goal. KUNO FRANCKE.

SUDERMANN'S NEW PLAY.

BERLIN, February 14, 1902.

Dramatic interest in Berlin centres just now in the Deutsches Theater, where Hermann Sudermann's newest play, "Es lebe das Leben," is attracting crowds of interested spectators. The piece promises to be a pronounced theatrical success. On the first and second nights, loud applause marked the close of the second, third, and fifth acts, and was in no wise lessened by the repeated appearance of the author before the curtain. In the case of all such ovations it is, of course, difficult to decide how much is to be credited to real interest in the play, and how much to the desire to see a live literary lion. The applause on these occasions marked, at all events, the points of highest interest for the spectator.

The Deutsches Theater knows how to give a play by Hauptmann or Sudermann. This circumstance insures a sympathetic and adequate representation of the new drama. Players and author work together so harmoniously in this case that the spectator forgets to think about the probability or improbability of what is going on before his eyes. For the time being, he sees and hears only facts, and about the reality of facts there can be no disputing. Nor does the interest lag at any point in the whole representation. A play which so holds your interest and attention that you forget to pick flaws in it until you leave the theatre or read it in peace at home, may be said to have attained at least one of the ends for which it was written.

Sudermann is dealing here with a gruesome theme. The presupposition of the whole is a case of marital infidelity in the higher circles of Berlin. It is hardly fair to call it a drama of adultery, for the degree of grossness of the infidelity is veiled in the discreetest silence. In any event, fifteen years of correct living have passed since then, and the secret seems for ever safe, when the action of the play begins. The persons are, with few exceptions, Berlin aristocrats of to-day. The time is the end of the nineties, when the new Civil Code was taking shape in the Reichstag. The title (whatever else it may also mean) points to a passage towards the close of the fifth act, where the guilty wife proposes *a toast to life* at the moment when her own self-inflicted end is near.

The scene of the first act is in the house of Count Kellinghausen. He is a man of infinite good-nature and kindness, but otherwise quite mediocre, whereas his wife Beate is the dominating figure of the drama. For twenty years she has played the rôle of wife and mother to his entire satisfaction. In spite of such continued ill-health that every day she lives is in a sense the gift of the physician and the apothecary, she is the admired social leader, and makes his house a centre for the fashionable and political world. Fifteen years before, her heart had passed out beyond the bounds of her conventional marriage and had found the object of its unwavering affections in Baron Völkerlingk, whose frivolous and heartless wife had made domestic happiness an impossibility for him from the beginning. He has meanwhile become, through force of circumstances, the warm friend of Kellinghausen, and sees in the painful restraint of the resulting Platonic relationship with Beate something of penance for his wrong. A sense of guilt oppresses him; but although she has struggled with him through to the purer relations of these later years, she rejoices in her love. Her chief aim in life is to be his counsellor and stay, to further his political career, and to awaken in him the ambition for that great future for which she thinks him fitted. His ability as an orator had won for him a commanding place in his party, but the favor of his constituency was fickle and he had lost his seat in Parliament. Although fanatical in his devotion to his party, Kellinghausen has no real aptitude or fondness for public life, and gives up his own candidacy in favor of his friend. Such is the situation at the beginning of the first act. The election returns are just coming in. As we wait for their favorable outcome, we learn from the conversation of Beate and Völkerlingk the history of their past. The premonitions that fill his soul prepare us for the impending disaster. The coming and going incident to the reception of the news from the polls introduces us to nearly all the persons who appear in the play. From the start the poet begins to interweave the love affair of Beate's daughter and Völkerlingk's son with the chief action.

The second and third acts are also in the house of Kellinghausen. An evening gathering brings together the leading lights of the Conservative party. Most of them carry in their pockets a copy of the Social-Democratic paper containing a report of a campaign speech by Völkerlingk's former secretary, Meixner, in which pretty clear allusions to a scandal in the house of the host are made. A copy of the paper, still in its wrapper, lies upon the writing-desk. Völkerlingk's wife, in possibly the poorest scene of the play, sees to it that Beate reads the critical passage. The leaders of the party find occasion to draw from Völkerlingk, who has also received the newspaper, a promise to speak in the next session of the Reichstag upon the burning question of the modern marriage. His honor has been publicly attacked, they argue, and he can silence his opponents and do his party a service in no better way than by becoming their spokesman on this important occasion. In short, everybody knows of the matter except Kellinghausen. But Völkerlingk's son has just issued a pamphlet in which he holds the unorthodox view that the nobility should not fight duels to defend their honor. On this evening the men present, and especially Kellinghausen, combat his theories. In the course of his argumentation he mentions the attack in the newspaper, and so even Kellinghausen is at last informed.

The next day ushers in the third act. Fully convinced of the innocence of his wife and his friend, Kellinghausen goes to institute legal proceedings for slander against Meixner, but the Conservative leaders urge that such public action would only stir up a scandal and injure the party. Without in reality giving up his purpose, he agrees to postpone action for a time. On his return home he asks his friend and his wife, as a matter of form, to give their word of honor that the charges are false. The man is ready, but the woman comes out with the truth, for she is convinced that Völkerlingk's lie would necessarily be followed by his death at his own hands. From that moment her course is clear to her; she must end her life that he may live and fulfil his high destiny. In the short time that yet remains to her she must accomplish three things: save appearances, insure the happiness of her daughter and

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Völkerlingk's son, and keep both men in total ignorance of her intention. Left to themselves, they agree that a duel is impossible out of regard to the interests of their party and their families, and that Völkerlingk is in this case the one who must quietly leave this world.

The fourth act brings us to Völkerlingk's house. He has meanwhile delivered his speech on the marriage question and scored a great triumph. It is whispered along the line that the Emperor thinks he can use such a man in his Cabinet. Meixner appears, for reasons which do not concern us here, and surrenders the letters which are the sole proof of his charges. Everything beckons the doomed man back into life at the very time that he must end it. Then Beate comes and secures his promise that he will not carry out his purpose immediately. Her husband has determined to do one thing more to save appearances, and plans a breakfast for the orator at which the leaders of the party will also be present. After that, Völkerlingk may steal out of the world as quietly as he will.

On the morrow the breakfast really takes place. Kellinghausen intends that his wife shall leave his house that day for ever. She plans it too, but not as he means. The guests come, the quondam friends drink to each other's health. Beate also has her toast to offer. She reminds them how she has struggled with death for many years, and has yet found existence so beautiful and desirable that she can fitly propose to-day a toast to life. As the glasses clink in response to her little speech, she is seized by a spasm of pain and weakness and totters out of the room to die. When the two men stand later alone in the breakfast-room and read the letter which she has left for them, her purpose is clear. Her physician had given her a powerful medicine to be taken in the smallest quantities. An overdose meant death, but the uninitiated could not suspect her of suicide. To avert scandal, Völkerlingk would now have to live. Without him her life would really have been at an end, for he was all of life to her. And so by her act she drove him back from the grave into that career for which she had striven to fit him.

Such a bald account of this long and intricate drama must necessarily leave unmentioned all minor action and minor characters. It can still less do justice to the technical skill and the workmanship which seem to promise great success for the play upon the stage. Whether the reading public will welcome it is another question. The number of dramas which are effective both on the stage and in the closet is so small that the chances are decidedly against every new claimant for that high honor. It may be that Sudermann will have to be content this time with the more transient approval of the theatre-goer. For, to pass over all other considerations, the drama is, when you come to read it and think about it, full of improbabilities. The whole basis is improbable. It is improbable that a woman so pure of heart as Beate, so high-minded, so discreet, so tactful, would enter into such a relationship. It is improbable that two people who have lived a lie for fifteen years would hesitate to tell one, especially if they thought they could not be caught. It is improbable that a Prussian nobleman of to-day would permit party considerations to hold him back from a duel when he thought the honor of his family at stake. It is improbable that the breakfast scene could take place. In fact, the whole is a tissue of improbabilities, which the skill of poet and actor makes for a brief season seem most real.

CHARLES HARRIS.

Correspondence.

DEAN COLET AND MR. CARNEGIE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your recent article on "Perpetual Educational Trusts," I read with interest the praise of the discretion, the wisdom, and the humor of Mr. Carnegie in empowering the trustees of his magnificent institution "to modify the conditions and regulations under which the funds may be dispensed." "It is strange," your critic continues, "that so simple and sensible an attitude should be *unique* among great benefactors. . . . In this matter, Mr. C. has set most gracefully an example which is worthy of general imitation." An example decidedly worthy of imitation, but *not set for the first time* by Mr. Carnegie.

In the history of English education, this example was set by no less a man than Dean Colet in 1509, in the Statutes given to his then newly founded School of St. Paul's, originally planned for 153 boys. The tremendous growth and future importance of this school could never have been foreseen by its founder, but was made possible by the addition to the Statutes of a final paragraph, which has the title, "Liberte to Declare the Statutes," and which reads in part as follows:

"And notwithstanding These statutis and ordinancis before writen in whiche I haue declarid my mynde and will yet (because in tyme to cum many thyngis *may and shall* surwyne [supervene] and grow by many occasions and causis which at the makyng of this boke was not possible to come to mynde: In considering the assurid truyth and sircumspect wisdome and faithfull goodnesse of the most honest and substanciall feloshipp of the mercery of london to whome I haue committid all the cure of the scole. . . . I leve it hooly to theyr dyscrecion and charite. . . . They to adde and diminish vnto this boke [viz., of Statutes] and to supply in it every defaute, &c."

I have often been astonished that these golden words seem to be utterly unknown. I have never seen them even alluded to in our popular histories of education, which are so busy about defining the pedagogical "methods" of the different ages from the Assyrians down to Horace Mann. I have been astonished, further, that Colet's noble example has scarcely (if at all?) been imitated, and that our modern educational statute-makers have gone on making decrees to last "for ever and ever." In this respect, Mr. Carnegie's tact and example are, indeed, not only praiseworthy, but epoch-making.

As a practical man I am particularly pleased that Mr. Carnegie did not restrict the endowment fund to his (first?) magnificent gift of ten millions.

Yours respectfully, EWALD FLÜGEL.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CAL., February 12, 1902.

AN EDUCATIONAL CABINET.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of the 13th inst., while discussing the feature of the revised New York charter which *allows* the head of any administrative department to occupy a seat in the Board of Aldermen and to participate in its discussions, you are pleased to say that, " so far as we can recall, this is the first time that the principle of giving department heads the right to speak in a legislative body has been applied in this country," etc.

Allow me to say that the St. Louis Board of Education, ever since, five years ago, it ceased to be a political body, has *required*, under its adopted rules, the chiefs of its departments, as created under its charter, to wit, the Superintendent of Instruction, the Building Commissioner, the Supply Commissioner, the Auditor, and the Secretary and Treasurer, to be present at all sessions of the Board, to answer all inquiries made of them by members, to explain and state their views, pro and con, upon any proposition that may be under discussion, and to be ready, with their professional knowledge, to assist in the educational and administrative work that may be on hand. They have their permanent desks within the area occupied by the Board, and there is not a session where one or more of them are not called upon to give their expert opinion upon whatever matter of importance, touching their respective department, is under consideration.

The system works admirably, facilitates legislation, and brings about a harmonious method of operation between the legislative and executive forces of the Board such as no other system could.

Respectfully, W. T.

ST. LOUIS, February 17, 1902.

EARL DURHAM'S CANADIAN REPORT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your reference, on page 132, to Durham's interesting Report on Canadian matters in 1839, suggests the query, Can a local legend be confirmed, viz., that the writing of the Report was in the main by Christopher Dunkin, a teacher of Greek at Harvard in 1837? It is thought that the original draft by Dunkin was probably amended and polished by Charles Buller and the other official secretary that the Earl brought out with him, but that it is substantially Dunkin's work.

Is this historical? And what, if any, is the evidence sustaining it?

J. DAVIS BARNETT.

STRATFORD, ONT., CANADA, February 17, 1902.

Notes.

Herbert S. Stone & Co. are to bring out a Dictionary of Art, beginning with the Renaissance, and including the great painters and sculptors down to the present time. It will be illustrated.

The Autobiography of the late Lieut.-Gen. Sir Harry Smith will be published shortly by E. P. Dutton & Co.

From John Lane's spring announcements we select 'Dante and the Divine Comedy;

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Studies and Notes,' by W. J. Payling Wright; 'Persian Children of the Royal Family,' the narrative of an English tutor, Wilfrid Sparroy; 'With Napoleon at St. Helena,' from the Memoirs of Dr. John Stokoe, Naval Surgeon; 'Terrors of the Law,' portraits of three lawyers, by Francis Watt; 'New Poems,' by Theodore Watts-Dunton; 'India's Love Lyrics,' collected by Laurence Hope; a series of illustrated books on gardening—'In a Tuscan Garden,' 'In a Vicarage Garden and Elsewhere,' by the Rev. Canon Ellacombe, 'A Garden in the Suburbs,' by Mrs. Leslie Williams, 'Stray Leaves from a Border Garden,' by Mary Pamela Milne-Holme, and a new edition of Forbes Watson's 'Flowers and Gardens'; 'Modern British Domestic Architecture and Decoration' and 'Modern Pen-Drawing—European and American,' both edited by Charles Holme; finally, 'Modern Design in Jewelry and Fans.'

Additional announcements from Charles Scribner's Sons are a 'History of English Literature,' by William Vaughn Moody and Robert Morss Lovett of the University of Chicago; Paulsen's 'Immanuel Kant,' translated by Professors Creighton and Lefevre of the same university; 'American Citizenship,' by Justice Brewer of the Supreme Court, first of a series of annual publications of the Dodge lectureship at Yale on the Responsibilities of Citizenship; and 'Letters from Egypt and Palestine,' by the late Maltbie D. Babcock, D.D.

McClure, Phillips & Co. announce for publication in the spring 'Political Portraits,' by William Allen White; Unpublished Letters of Daniel Webster; 'Wireless Telegraphy,' by Guglielmo Marconi; 'The Making of a Statesman,' a novelette and other Georgia stories, by Joel Chandler Harris; 'The Madness of Philip, and Other Stories of Childhood,' by Josephine Dodge Daskam; 'A Musical Guide,' by Rupert Hughes; and a facsimile of Charles Lamb's 'King and Queen of Hearts,' published in 1806.

President Sharpless's meritorious work, 'A Quaker Experiment in Government,' has met with sufficient approval to warrant a popular edition in a single volume. This is now brought out very attractively by Ferris & Leach, Philadelphia; but we could wish the index had been enlarged and modernized—and made veracious, for several references (beginning with the very first!) are to pages no longer to be found in volume ii., and betray an extensive abridgment not acknowledged on the title-page.

A third edition of Dr. John C. Thresh's manual of 'Water and Water Supplies' has recently been issued (Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co.). The book has been brought up to date, and now includes additional chapters on the protection of water supplies. Its main object is to place within the reach of all persons interested in public health the information requisite for forming an opinion as to whether any proposed supply is sufficiently wholesome and abundant, and whether the cost can be considered reasonable. It does not in the least pretend to be a treatise on engineering. Dr. Thresh's manner is lucid, and imparts an interest to such questions as the composition and properties of water, that one would scarcely suppose could be put into them. Although he always has the English public in mind, the larger part of his book is applicable to our own affairs without modification.

Under the somewhat invidious title 'The American Immortals,' G. P. Putnam's Sons publish a large and very ponderous quarto, resplendent in red and gilt binding, containing accounts of the twenty-nine persons whose names are now emblazoned in the "Hall of Fame." These accounts have been prepared by George Cary Eggleston, with the purpose of presenting critical estimates, "with so much of biography in each case as is necessary to a due comprehension of the subjects." Since the respective claims to immortality must be presented on an average within the compass of 14 pages of large print, and Washington, Jefferson, Franklin, and Adams take 95 pages, Webster and Clay occupying 75 more, the remaining heroes have but a slender chance for an "intelligent account of their character, achievements, and history." To this some of them might be reconciled, could they read the damning estimate of the morals of certain of the glorified—notably Webster—and think of their own shortcomings. Truly, not merely the feet but much of the frame of these idols was clay. But we all know that Zeus and Apollo had human frailties, and it would not do to set the standard of American immortality too high. The portraits are hardly worthy of so gorgeous a volume, many of them being hard and coarse; but, on the whole, the book may be commended as carrying out in an appropriate manner the purposes for which the "Hall of Fame" was founded.

A special feature of Prof. Edward Capps's 'Manual of Greek Literature from Homer to Theocritus' (Charles Scribner's Sons) is the endeavor to illustrate each author, as far as possible, by copious selections from the best English translations. Naturally this mode of illustration is carried further for the poets than for prose writers. The selections are well chosen, and will prove most useful to students who, through force of circumstances, have been obliged to confine themselves to a hasty or superficial acquaintance with the Greek language. As compared with Jevons's excellent manual, with its freshness, its detail, and its discussion of technical points, Professor Capps's work may be called popular; but there is nothing sketchy or second-hand in its mode of treatment. The style is easy and interesting, the proportion and perspective well preserved, the scholarship thorough and accurate. The chapters on Tragedy and Comedy are particularly strong, as might be expected from a scholar who has made special researches in the history of the Drama and the question of the Stage. Very useful, also, and informing is the treatise on the lost literature of the fourth century B. C., as well as the bibliographical appendix. The book will commend itself to a wide class of readers as well as to the learner in Greek literature; it should also be kept in mind by instructors in general literature.

To David Nutt's excellent little series, "The Ancient East," Professor Zimmern of Leipzig has added a brochure, 'The Babylonian and the Hebrew Genesis.' It is clear, readable, and careful in an eminent degree. The treatment of the Tehom myth, often so obscure, is especially good. Professor Zimmern holds that these Babylonian stories entered Palestine in the middle of the second millennium B. C., and that the Israelites found them there. That they could have been transferred as late as the exile, he cannot believe.

To the International Theological Library Principal Rainy of Edinburgh has contributed a very racy volume on 'The Ancient Catholic Church' (Charles Scribner's Sons). It covers the period from 98-451 A. D., is most excellently and clearly arranged, with a well-marked order, and is written in a downright style, simple and unpretentious. Simplicity, indeed, and perspicuity are the keynotes, and too great burden of detail is avoided. The bibliography is tolerably full, but wider and more exact references to sources and discussions, especially modern, might have been looked for. Dr. Rainy apparently did not write, at least in the first instance, for the student who desires to work out his own historical salvation, but for those who can be fed with a spoon. As a criticism of detail, the description of thought and feeling in the Roman world into which Christianity came is hardly adequate. Of the manifold Oriental influences and the changes which they had wrought, little account is taken. Such a phenomenon, for example, as Apuleius, is passed with a word, and Apollonius of Tyana, an even more significant figure, has scant attention. Yet, to the onlooker of the time, Christianity could have seemed only one wave in the Oriental flood which was rising so fast. Some similar exceptions might be taken by the student of history and philosophy in the large; but to lay stress on them would be unfair towards a very fresh and able book.

Dr. Rodkinson has added to his translation of the Babylonian Talmud the first half, chapters one to five, of the tractate 'Baba Bathra.' Strictly, the tractate deals with the law of occupancy, and is mainly derived from the Roman law of *usucapio*, but its chief interest will probably be found in its incidental and Haggadic elements. Thus, the first chapter contains the celebrated passage giving the Talmudic view of the canon, order and authorship of the Old Testament, and the fifth has a string of Haggadas like nothing so much as the "biggest lie" stories known to folk-lorists. Throughout the whole volume we are kept facing the question of jest or earnest. Whether these venerable doctors always had straight faces, or have been playing a series of gigantic jokes on generations of dutiful students and interpreters, each reader must settle for himself. Much will depend on his own sense of humor.

The Italians have a graceful custom of printing as a wedding offering an essay, or inedited rarity, in literature or history, which might elsewhere appear in the less attractive form of thesis or appendix. A fine specimen of this is shown in 'Cenni Storici sulle Imprese scientifiche, marittime e coloniali di Ferdinando I.,' Grand Duke of Tuscany, 1587-1609 (Florence: Press of G. Spinelli). The author, Gustavo Uzielli, after an address to the bride, in which he traces the genealogy of the Uberti, gives an account of the Grand Duke Ferdinand, who continued in an unpropitious time the Tuscan reputation for culture. Besides this essay, there are a list of works printed at the Medicean Press; reprints of old pictures of a naval battle in 1602, and of the capture of Bona in 1607, with contemporary accounts of the latter exploit and of the capture of a naval convoy in 1608; and, finally, nine letters—among them one in which the Grand Duke asks the General of the Jes-

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uits for credentials for four of his subjects, who are going to the East Indies to hunt for precious stones to adorn the Medicean Chapel at S. Lorenzo. The material is generally entertaining, and the paper and presswork are worthy of a bridal gift.

The yearly volume of Transactions and Proceedings of the American Philological Association, for 1901, has made its appearance. It contains the proceedings of the regular annual meeting, held at Cambridge in July, the special meeting held in Philadelphia the preceding December, and the meeting of the Pacific Coast branch, in session at San Francisco at the same time. Twelve papers are presented in full, but one of which is of general importance—the "Causes of Uniformity in Phonetic Change," by President Benjamin Ide Wheeler. It is impossible to summarize here the line of argument by which he sets aside the theory of Paul, explaining phonetic change as due to a gradual, insensible shifting of the memory image, making itself felt in equal measure and at an even level throughout the entire like-conditioned material of the speech of a community, and substitutes for it his own belief that sound-change "eats its way into language and passes from word to word." In addition to the twelve papers given in full, abstracts of about fourscore more are presented, many of which have already found publication through other channels. The Association is financially on a good footing, and has shown a commendable spirit in voting a subvention of £40 per year for three years to the Plato-Lexicon in preparation under the editorial supervision of the veteran Professor Campbell. It has also shown a wise spirit in dropping from further consideration the request of the Director of the United States Geological Survey for aid in the formation of certain new scientific terms. A committee was appointed at the special December session to take the request under consideration, but the committee conservatively expressed its lack of conviction that the contemplated overthrow of the old nomenclature is either practicable or desirable, presented a few newly created terms merely as specimens (horrible examples?), declared that the Geologists must be responsible for their own linguistic ventures, and asked to be discharged—a request which was unanimously granted.

The principal article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number one, is by Dr. A. Stübel, on the principal centres of volcanic action in South America, and the distinguishing characteristics of the active volcanoes, 117 of which are shown on the accompanying map. Prof. P. Langhans tells of the richness in pure copper and iron of the region on the western shore of Lake Tanganyika, and E. Berdau describes the giant trees of California, whose imminent destruction by forty-two lumber companies he deplores. Their age he estimates at from 5,000 to 9,000 years, and asserts that "they could, judging from their condition, grow indefinitely without ever succumbing to old age."

Dr. Stein, the well-known archæologist, late of Punjab and now of Calcutta University, has recently published a preliminary report of his last excavations in Chinese Turkestan. Sanskrit scholars will welcome the unexpected proofs of early Hindu occupation of this remote region, north of Kashmere, and classical scholars may be surprised to find in the very beautiful plates which accompany the report ocular evidence of the fact that Greek art was known and imitated as far east as Khotan in the first centuries of our era.

Among the liberal innovations of the present French Ministry one deserves to be widely known to scholars. The Minister of Public Instruction last November created a special section in the libraries of Sainte-Geneviève in Paris, and the university libraries of Besançon, Dijon, Lille, Montpellier, Nancy, Poitiers, Rennes, and Toulouse, for long-term loans of books needful for the prosecution of studies extending over a considerable period of time. The publications in question are such as have been made by or under the auspices of the above-named department. Under proper guarantees as to intended use, responsibility, liability for loss and for cost of transportation, such publications may be kept not longer than five years.

—Macmillan's new series of Guides seems fairly well adapted for the flying tourist who must read as he flies, and be told what to look for on his flights and what to think when he looks. In three little volumes of about 250 pages each the western Mediterranean, the eastern Mediterranean, and Palestine and Egypt are covered, and covered with adequacy. Of course, there can be in them nothing of that detail and scientific precision which make a Baedeker a book of reference as well as a guide-book, but they will undoubtedly have a sphere of their own beside their larger and more ambitious brethren. Yet it is a pity that advertisements have been admitted, and also that the contributions of specialists are anonymous. The veil, however, is transparent, and betraying idiosyncrasies sometimes appear. The general editors should see to it that these do not become too rampant. The learned writer on Damascus, for example, might with advantage drop attempts at derivations for that name and for ash-Sham, and he of Constantinople need not give the technicalities of Muslim prayers in Persian. Probably, too, only one Orientalist ever had the unhappy idea of spelling Koran with a "Kh." Over the anonymity of Morocco the veil is peculiarly thin; the writer in this last case, however, whatever his technical scholarship, knows the ground well. But, above all, a guide-book should not sanction such "private interpretations" as that of John xx, 3-10, given on pages 43 ff. of 'Palestine and Egypt,' etc. The editors might well abate the didactic loquacity of this writer. It takes up much space, is not to edification, and will move many to unseemly mirth. It is also somewhat strange that a professedly small and cheap series should make a special feature of a careful and evidently excellent account of the different harbors of the Mediterranean. Yachtsmen will surely not be so limited in point of purse, time, or weight. There are numerous maps and plans which are mostly clear, full, and good. The series can in general be commended; some parts of it are excellent.

—Two years ago, under instruction from the Russian Ministry of Ways and Communication, A. I. Dmítrieff-Mámonoff and A. F. Zdziárski prepared a 'Guide to the Great Siberian Railway' upon a monumental plan. It is a large octavo of 520 pages, illustrated by two phototypes, 360 photogravures, four maps, and three plans of towns. A French translation was made for use in the Paris Exposition of 1900, and now we have an English translation, by Miss L. Kúkol-Yasnopólsky (revised by John Marshall), which is on sale by G. P. Putnam's Sons. The work is crowded with information of every sort, and is an invaluable handbook for the increasing number of travellers who will choose the Siberian route to the Orient. It will serve also for the general reader to give a new idea of the remarkable resources opened up by this railroad for Russian settlement and business enterprise. Tributary to the railroad, and connected by the numerous lines of water communication which it crosses, there is an area of rich, arable land equal in size to the States of Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, Minnesota, Iowa, and Nebraska, and very similar in material resources. The vast plains of the Obi Valley correspond closely to the prairie region of the upper Mississippi, with the climate of northern Minnesota and Manitoba. The geological explorations in connection with the construction of the railway have brought to light extensive deposits of coal and iron in widely distributed areas, so that home manufactures are likely, in the immediate future, to supply the wants of the rapidly increasing population, which already numbers more than 7,000,000. Now that the last rails have been laid upon the Chinese Eastern road, it is possible to go without changing cars from Moscow to Vladivostok or Port Arthur in less than twenty days, which eventually will be reduced to ten or twelve days. From the tourist's point of view, the trip of nearly 6,000 miles will ever continue to be one of the most varied and interesting anywhere to be found in the world, while the cost of a first-class ticket, including sleeping accommodations, will be only $60, and second-class, with similar accommodations, only $40. In general, the English translation is very good, and the illustrations, mostly from photographs, are exceedingly instructive. The reader will be confused by the failure of the translator to indicate the standard of measurement used in estimating areas. Evidently the square mile used is the German geographical square mile, which is sixteen times the English square mile. But of this the reader is not duly warned.

—The little volume on 'Edwin Booth,' by Charles Townsend Copeland (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.), in the series of the "Boston Biographies," is a model of its kind, being at once compact and comprehensive. Mr. Copeland, of course, has nothing new to tell concerning the salient facts in the private life or professional career of Edwin Booth, and purposely omits the minor details with which some of the larger biographies are clogged; but he has furnished a most intelligent and sympathetic appreciation of the actor and the man, in which cordial recognition of his genius and his virtues is mingled with judicious criticism. As a contribution to theatrical literature it is of infinitely greater value than many more pretentious works of a similar character, and it may be commended especially to younger students of the stage, as a notably just and vivid summary of Booth's accomplishments and the part which he played in the theatrical history of his time. Not everybody, presumably, will

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agree with all of Mr. Copeland's conclusions with regard to the merits of individual performances, but few will deny the critical sagacity which he displays, his knowledge of the subject, his sense of proportion, or his admirable consistency. A particularly interesting feature of the book is some hitherto unpublished correspondence of the actor, which brings into strong relief some of his most charming natural traits, his courage in affliction, the vein of playful humor that lightened his habitual melancholy, his capacity for deep affection, his true patriotism, his patience, his modesty, and his entire freedom from professional jealousy—qualities which account fully for the tender and reverent esteem in which he was held by his friends and associates. In a word, this is an essay well worth the reading, for its style, which is exceedingly good, its justice, its continence, and its mastery of its subject.

—The small octavo entitled 'Modern Greece,' by Sir Richard C. Jebb (Macmillan), a reissue after some years, condenses in four essays a general view of the Greek Kingdom and the Greek question, historically, politically, and socially. The first paper is a masterly outline of the story of the Greek people from Alexander to our own time, presenting the transitions from Roman to Byzantine and Turkish rule with accuracy, vivacity, and eloquence. In spite of its brevity, it is full of color and picturesque detail. The second paper supplements this sketch with a picture of the general aspect and social conditions of the country as observed in a brief tour in 1878, containing many striking observations which the traveller will find true to his own recollections. The chapter on the progress of Greece, though written twenty years ago, contains very few pages that are now superseded. The recent war has of course, wrought some changes, particularly in Thessaly. The manufactories of which Professor Jebb speaks have been closed, in many places, on account of the high price of coal; and an active emigration has set in to the United States, which no one dreamed of in 1890. Agricultural conditions and appliances, however, have improved since the war, and agriculture must remain, as Professor Jebb concludes, the mainstay of the country. Another kind of harvest—that of Switzerland and the State of Maine—may be reaped every year, we believe, when the roads are improved and extended, if judicious Greek investors will plant and multiply convenient inns at suitable coigns of vantage. This would be no desecration of a region teeming with natural beauties and historic memories. The author's general view of the people and their institutions is penetrating, just, and hopeful, without being too optimistic. The chapter on Lord Byron at Mesolonghi completes this *aperçu* by giving a section out of the most critical period of the War of Independence. Byron had no prejudices against the Turks and no illusions with regard to the Greek people and character; yet he measured with accuracy and sobriety their political possibilities and their weight in the diplomacy of the Levant.

—Parts x., xi. of the 'Catalogo Generale della Libreria Italiana dall' anno 1847 a tutto il 1899' (Milan: Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) conclude the first volume with the letter D, and contain the preface, which succinctly sets forth the aim of the work, its inclusions and exclusions, its rules of entry. The fourth of these rules has especial reference to the current instalments, and reads thus: "In the case of surnames preceded by the particles *da, de, di* (simple or conjoined), *du, von, van*, etc., if Italian, these prefixes are generally prefixed as they occur; if foreign, they are postfixed—still generally." One cannot quarrel with a method adopted by a foreigner to meet the needs of his countrymen, using his book of reference, but it seems strange to find here De Magny, De Maulde la Clavière, but not De Musset (and, of course, a host besides of French writers). English names are sometimes mishandled, as we have heretofore had occasion to point out, and in Part eleven "Dudley-Field" anticipates his natural appearance among the F's (with the prompt Italian translation in 1874 of his bulky 'Outlines of an International Code'). Before leaving the subject of entries, we remark that, by the omission of the son's name, the works of the elder and the younger Dumas are run together under a single rubric. The point of cleavage is discernible only from the alphabetization. Dumas *père* fills three pages, or six columns, and there is no cessation of Italian editions of his works, from 1851 to 1899. Dickens, on the other hand, with his minor works thrown in, claims but a single column, though going back to 1852. 'The Cricket on the Hearth' ('Il grillo del focolare') has been quite the most popular, numbering five editions, the latest in 1883. 'David Copperfield' has had two (1859, 1869); 'Oliver Twist' (1857), 'Our Mutual Friend' (1869), 'Hard Times' ('Tempi difficili,' 1877), 'Little Dorrit' (1878), 'Bleak House' ('La Casa triste,' 1885), one each. Nor has Dickens's 'Pictures from Italy' gone beyond a first translation. On the whole, while Dumas's 'Three Musketeers' was reissued in 1899, it would appear that the English novelist has passed his climax in Italy. Among Italian authors here exhibited, De Gubernatis is as fecund as any, filling a page. Much space is demanded for Deliberazioni, Disposizioni, Documenti, Dialoghi; Descrizione, Diario, Dizionario. One cannot praise too highly the industry, skill in condensation, and self-effacing modesty of the anonymous editors of this Catalogue.

GREEN'S LIFE OF CHATHAM.

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, and the Growth and Division of the British Empire, 1708-1778. By Walford Davis Green, M.P. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1901. Pp. xiii, 391.

Mr. Green in his excellent book tells us much, but not at all too much, of William Pitt's personal characteristics; for the peculiarities of Pitt's genius, and, above all, the extraordinary combination of matchless eloquence with equally unrivalled administrative ability, are the causes of his eminence among the long roll of English statesmen. But Mr. Green does not tell us much about the special conditions which at once enabled Pitt to display the marvellous powers conferred upon him by nature, and also, in the later part of his life, made it impossible for him to spend his talents in the service of his country. To imagine, indeed, with some pedants who call themselves philosophers, that genius is created by the requirements of a particular time, is to fall a victim to one of the idols of the cave. But, on the other hand, to fancy with the crowd that the effect of originality is independent of the conditions necessary for its operation, is to be misled by one of the commonest idols of the market-place; and it is the more necessary to note the intimate connection between Pitt's career and the special features of public life in England during the eighteenth century, because on this subject readers may be misled by a singularity of English constitutionalism. The forms of the English Constitution are in 1902 much the same as they were towards the end of the reign of George II. At the beginning of the twentieth century, as at the middle of the eighteenth century, we find in England a King, a Parliament which meets year by year, a Cabinet, a Government party, an Opposition, Tories and Whigs, and all the well-known paraphernalia of constitutional monarchy; and we are tempted to draw the inference that the Constitution of to-day is substantially the Constitution which existed during the lifetime of William Pitt. Every student, of course, knows that this idea is a delusion, and that the real continuity of English public life masks great changes in English institutions. Few, however, realize that innovations which have been gradual have amounted in the aggregate to a revolution; and that Pitt's career, in its triumph and in its failure, was determined by political circumstances which are now things of a past age.

The Parliament of the eighteenth century was an aristocratic Parliament. This one fact alone was in itself of immense advantage to Pitt. Under an aristocratic régime his position and his genius alike favored his rise to power. He was known, indeed, as the Great Commoner; but his connection with families such as the Stanhopes, the Grenvilles, and the Lyttletons sufficiently shows how closely linked he was with the nobility. The "Cobham cousinhood" might be described as an aristocratic clique. Pitt in a sense represented, but he did not in spirit belong to, the middle classes. When a commoner, no less than when an earl, he belonged to the nobility. He was able to avail himself of an advantage which is now not possessed by any Englishman. Without any special effort he could and did enter Parliament in early youth. He took his seat (one can hardly say he was "elected") for Old Sarum at the age of twenty-seven, or, to use the language of Mr. Green, there "occurred that paradoxical conjunction of the most famous representative of the people with the most notorious of rotten boroughs." There was, in truth, no paradox at all. Pitt entered Parliament as the representative, not of the people, who had not a word to say in the matter, but of the owner of the borough, in this case his brother. He became a leader of the people. But so also did many a man who sat for a rotten borough; indeed, in Pitt's case it was the possibility of entering Parliament without any real election which enabled him to become a popular leader. He began public life young—in itself an immense gain; and he began it unhampered by pledges to electors or by subscription to any party programme. If the anomalies, not to say the abuses, of the British Constitution opened for Pitt the doors of the House

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of Commons, his special gifts exactly qualified him for eminence in the Parliament of his day. His eloquence, his appearance, his oratorical action, his crushing sarcasm—all the traits handed down mainly by tradition—are the characteristics of a man framed by nature to impress and lead an assembly where his audience delighted in rhetorical conflicts, where persons and personal influence told for much, and where, to speak plainly, rhetoric and personalities which were not spoilt by being reported in every morning newspaper, told for more than their real worth. A commanding presence, a grandiose imagination, combined with fiery passion and what has often been lacking to consummate orators—imperious strength of will—naturally marked out Pitt as the leader or the despot (he does not appear to have been ever the favorite) of a body such as was the House of Commons of 1757.

The parliaments, again, of the eighteenth century were far more political than legislative assemblies; they were concerned far less than the parliaments of to-day with law-making; they were much more vehemently concerned with policy. The fame of a Minister depended not upon carrying through acts of Parliament (with which, indeed, he might have very little to do), for few acts of a general character were passed, and the Government of the day was scarcely held responsible for such few as were carried. In truth, the course of events and an immense change in the current of opinion have during the nineteenth century carried the English Parliament from one extreme to another. In Chatham's time, and for more than fifty years later, English parliaments cared too little for legislation (whence arose the mass of abuses which had accumulated for generations, and in 1832 required at all costs to be removed), and cared, it may be, too much for policy. In 1902 the Parliament of the United Kingdom concerns itself, in appearance at least, very much with legislation, and, it may be argued, pays too little heed to policy. Whether this be so or not, it is certain that the preoccupation of Parliament and of England with policy, and especially with foreign policy, was most favorable to the authority of Pitt. His oratory was exactly suited for vehement party conflicts, and even more for keeping alive the high spirit of the country during a period of warfare. His resolution and his insight as an administrator then made him the creator of victory. His foes asserted—it may well have been a slander—that he purposely prolonged the conflict with France in order to keep up his own reputation. What is certainly true is, that times of warfare provided the best opportunity for the display of his genius. That he was the greatest of war ministers is certain; that he could have become, like his son, a great peace minister, is open to doubt.

The British Parliament was, further, in the age of Pitt, an emphatically English Parliament, and this in a sense in which the modern Parliament of the United Kingdom never can be a purely English assembly. For the British Parliament, though, since the union with Scotland, it had contained forty Scotch representatives, whose presence at Westminster added to the influence of the Crown, was for all essential purposes an English assembly, representing English feeling alone. The Reform Acts of the nineteenth century (accompanied, as they have been, by the rise of Nationalism) have done much more than lessen, it may be unduly, the representation of England at Westminster. They have created a complicated state of general opinion. A modern Minister must consider not only the opinion of England, but also the opinions of Scotland, of Ireland, and of Wales. England is, it is true, the "predominant partner," but a partnership is a different thing from a business belonging to one owner alone. The agent of a firm may find his action enfeebled because he must consult the wishes of more than one master. From this source of weakness Pitt was free; his wide views of public good made him throughout life resist the popular prejudice which desired to exclude Scotchmen from office and power, and he, more than any other statesman, welded England and Scotland into one nation. But the opinion of Great Britain, in so far as it reached Parliament, was, in England and Scotland alike, in reality English opinion; or, to put the thing in different words, British opinion was one thing throughout the whole of Great Britain. Pitt, therefore, was, especially in matters of foreign policy, the representative of an undivided and unhesitating national sentiment.

Mr. Green points out, and with truth, that Pitt's oratory displayed just the kind of eloquence which in earlier ages might have swayed the citizens of Athens or of Rome. He does not insist upon an equally important point, that the body of men who took an effective share in English public life, and who, for practical purposes, constituted the nation, and to whom Pitt appealed, bore a considerable resemblance to the citizens of a classical state. They were, compared to the whole of the population, few in number. They belonged to a limited class. They were guided by a few leaders who held in their own hands a large amount of political power; and this "legal country," to use an expression borrowed from France, was far more keenly interested in politics, and especially in party conflicts, than are to-day the huge mass of modern English electors. To this it may be added that the House of Commons, which represented this English nation constituting but a portion of the people, was, in spite of the corruption and intrigue that degraded Parliamentary life, more easily affected by eloquence than are the much more respectable parliaments of the twentieth century. Partisanship was violent, but party lines were not very sharply drawn. It is almost impossible to read the account of the effect produced by Pitt's oratory and sarcasm without coming to the conclusion that votes were at times more easily turned by the force of rhetoric in Pitt's day, and even at a later date, than in our own time. This idea is confirmed by observation of the results produced alike by the diatribes of Junius and by the advocacy of Erskine. A rhetorical generation was singularly amenable to the charm of eloquence.

But, if the conditions of the time afforded a field for the exercise of Pitt's genius, they also went a great way towards rendering it useless to his country. Many, no doubt, of the calamities which in the later part of his career Pitt was doomed to witness, but was unable to avert, may be attributed to circumstances which he himself, had he remained in power, could not in the long run have controlled. The miserable breakdown of his health, in 1766, was itself one of those terrible accidents which frustrate human foresight. It is impossible to insist too much or too often upon the ills which flowed from the dull obstinacy of George III. and the culpable pliancy of Lord North. Still, when everything is allowed for, the question remains, Why was it that, at a supreme crisis of national peril, the statesman who was still worshipped as the national hero, who had proved himself the most capable war minister England had ever seen, and who, whatever his faults, was felt by the people to be the most ardent of patriots, was not recalled to power? The answer is not hard to find. The unreformed Parliament of Great Britain had some striking merits. It more nearly represented the wishes of the nation than any one would have expected who, without a general knowledge of history, had simply examined the mode in which members of Parliament were elected; but the unreformed Parliament exhibited one fatal defect. No minister could hold or attain power unless he was supported by the influence (to use the expression of the time) either of the Crown or of a compact party who, from the possession of nomination boroughs, could appoint a large number of Members of Parliament. At the time of Pitt's triumphs, the alliance with the Duke of Newcastle, and also, in the last years of George the Second, the good will of the Court, gave him that permanent support in the House of Commons without which it was impossible to govern. In the later years of his life he was not supported by the united body of Whig nobles, and he was hated by the King, who considered him a "trumpet of sedition." George III., too, had become the greatest borough-monger in his kingdom; and, being endowed with the cunning or astuteness sometimes connected with insanity, showed exactly the kind of gifts which have occasionally made men of no breadth of view or real capacity the "bosses" of some American cities.

The system of government, then, which revealed Chatham's genius to the world, was also the system which led to the failure and the tragedy of Chatham's last years.

PATON'S SYRIA AND PALESTINE.

The Early History of Syria and Palestine. By Lewis Bayles Paton, Ph.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901. Pp. xxxvi, 302.

This is a remarkably sane and discriminating treatment of a subject which, unfortunately, "gets on the imagination" of most of those who try to deal with it. The available material for the early history of Palestine is rather meagre, derived chiefly from Egyptian, Babylonian, and Assyrian inscriptions and from the Bible. How to use the latter, especially for the earlier periods, is in any case a difficult question, and the difficulty is greatly enhanced by theological prejudices. For Syria we have the same material as for Palestine, less the Bible; but on the other hand we have no theological prejudices to deal with. Professor Paton seems to have used to the full all available material, and it is surprising how much information he is able to piece together about times and countries whose remains are practically unexplored.

The earliest inhabitants, whose remains consist of megalithic monuments of the

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Stone Age, he supposes to have belonged to the "so-called Kelto-Libyan race, which once occupied the entire coast of the Mediterranean," and to have been "ethnologically allied to the ancient Libyans and to the modern Kabyles of the mountains of Algeria." The first Babylonian inscriptions which mention expeditions as far westward as the Mediterranean Sea, fall about 3200 B. C., according to Professor Paton's conservative dating. From that on for about 1,200 years, we have a series of inscriptions showing that Syria and Palestine belonged to the ancient world of the Babylonians, politically—that is, in so far that various Babylonian kings claimed supremacy, levied tribute, and brought cedar from the Lebanon and Amanus mountains. Professor Paton believes that ethnologically, also, Syria and Palestine constituted an integral part of the ancient Babylonian world from the beginning of this period—that is, that they were occupied by Semitic peoples of the same stock as the Babylonians; but of this he adduces no proof other than the analogy of later times. More definite information as to the ethnological and linguistic affinities, at least of the Palestinian population, we begin to obtain in the latter half of the third millennium. It seems to be established that at that period the same or kindred peoples, moving northward from Arabia, entered Babylonia on the east and Palestine on the west. After this, successive waves of northward migration of Semitic peoples from Arabia can be traced, from the fourteenth pre-Christian century to the commencement of our era speaking Aramaic; after that, Arabic. Somewhat fanciful is Professor Paton's suggestion that Arabia bubbles over periodically at intervals about 1,000 years apart.

His treatment of the Hebrew race traditions is fresh and suggestive. Under his handling, the story of the twelve tribes of Israel, descended from two different wives and two concubines, handmaids to those wives, acquires real historical significance. Asher is mentioned in Egyptian inscriptions, before the time of the Hebrews, as a tribe or people somewhere in the northern part of Palestine, and hence, apparently, Canaanitic. After the Hebrew occupation, this tribe was admitted into the Hebrew twelve, but its origin is commemorated in the statement that it is a daughter of a concubine, a handmaid of Leah. The somewhat startling discovery some years since that the Egyptians knew certain Palestinian localities by the names Jacob-el and Joseph-el, when there were as yet no Israelites in the land, finds its explanation in those same Hebrew race traditions. Joseph (or Joseph-el, which is the same name with the divine suffix) was the ancient designation of that part of Palestine afterwards occupied by Ephraim and Manasseh. It was because those tribes settled in the land of Joseph that they came to be regarded as the children of Joseph. Similarly, in the Egyptian inscriptions the land east of the Jordan is designated as Ruten, which, in Semitic form, would be Lotan. This is the land of Lot, and Moab and Ammon became children of Lot because they occupied that territory. Israel and Jacob-el, or Jacob, were identified in a somewhat different relation, namely, as one and the same person, not as father and son.

The Babylonian divine names found in connection with Palestinian towns, mountains, and the like, in the Egyptian inscriptions, the Tel el-Amarna letters, and later in the Hebrew records, show that the Babylonian religion took root in Palestine during the long period of Babylonian supremacy. This religion the Hebrews found localized among the peoples of Canaan at the time of their occupation. Hence the similarity and at the same time the difference between the Hebrew and Babylonian creation, flood, and other myths. Professor Paton treats these subjects rationally, without theological bias, and yet without leaning backward. Hence one is the more ready to accept his somewhat conservative treatment of the famous fourteenth chapter of Genesis, with its story of the Elamite conquest of the Dead Sea cities, and of Abram and Melchizedek. This has been not infrequently regarded as a late Jewish romance, founded, perhaps, on old Babylonian material. Professor Paton regards it as "derived from a Canaanitish source, and as the earliest extant native document for the history of Palestine."

He makes, of course, full use of the Tel el-Amarna letters. The Suti and Khabiri, mentioned in those letters as invaders of Palestine, were the vanguard of that great Aramæan immigration from Arabia which finally overwhelmed all Syria and Mesopotamia. The Khabiri were Hebrews, not in the narrower sense in which we ordinarily use the name, but in that broader sense which includes also Moabites, Ammonites, and Edomites. Israel had not yet come into being. Somewhat later those tribes known afterwards as Joseph and Benjamin entered Egypt. The Leah tribes, Reuben, Judah, Simeon, Levi, etc., occupied at that time the region between Egypt and Palestine, having their headquarters at Kadesh-Barnea. This would explain the perplexing inscription of Merneptah, discovered in 1896, the only Egyptian monument on which Israel is mentioned. Here Israel is numbered among the peoples of Palestine and neighboring regions, whom Merneptah claims to have conquered. As a corollary of this explanation it follows, so Professor Paton thinks, that Merneptah was not the Pharaoh of the Exodus, which took place shortly after the time of Ramses III., about 1200 B. C.

Most fascinating is the account of the race movements which led to the settlement of the Philistines on the coast of Palestine at about the same time that the Israelites occupied the interior of the country; of those migrations from the north which brought the Hittites into Syria, and of the final occupation of the Hittite country by the Aramæans. Naturally, the book is fuller in its treatment of Palestine than of Syria, because in the Bible we have for Palestine, after the time of the Hebrew conquest, a considerable amount of native material, whereas from Syria we have almost nothing. Only one serious excavation has ever been undertaken there, namely, by the Germans, at the small mound of Zinjirli, in the extreme northwest, where were found the remains of a Hittite city, conquered later by the Aramæans and then by the Assyrians. Here and in some neighboring villages were found the most ancient Aramæan inscriptions yet discovered.

In only one matter of considerable importance do we feel inclined seriously to criticise Professor Paton's conclusions. He has followed the extraordinary theory of Stade, developed more fully by Budde, that the ethical character of the Hebrew religion was due to the fact that Yahaweh was not the ancestral god of the Hebrews, but "was the god of Sinai and of Midian, who had come into connection with Israel only through his own free, moral choice." This, it seems to us, is almost an absurd proposition on the face of it. It is impossible to interpret such religious movements as those of Moses, or Zoroaster, or Buddha, or Mohammed without recognizing the supreme importance of the leader who towers above his people. It is in him and his conceptions that the historian must look for the introduction of that ethical element which differentiates all these religions from the religions of the peoples about, not in a free moral choice of a god who was not an ancestral god. Incidentally Professor Paton has adduced some curious monumental evidence to discredit his own theory. The Aramæan tribes who settled at Zinjirli and its neighborhood, belonged to the vanguard of the Aramæan invasion, as did the Hebrews. Hence it is that we find them speaking a language so closely allied to Hebrew that it is almost doubtful whether it should be classed as Aramæan or Hebrew. Now these north Syrian peoples, so closely allied to the Hebrews, worshipped a divinity of the name Yahu, as appears by their proper names, and even called themselves Ya'udi or Yahudi, as did the Jews. But Yahu is only another form of Yahaweh, the ineffable divine name of the Jews, whence it would appear that, in religion as in language, Jew and north Syrian were closely related from ancestral times.

There are valuable chronological lists at the beginning of this little book, and an extensive bibliography, extremely useful to the student. A few sketch maps here and there through the volume are useful for suggesting to the eye the distribution of peoples and nations at various periods, according to Egyptian, Babylonian, and Assyrian inscriptions. Such maps must, however, be regarded as mere suggestions. The book is eminently readable, as well as scientifically valuable. It belongs to the "Semitic Series," the general editor of which is Professor Craig of the University of Michigan. If the remaining volumes of this series shall approximate the standard set by this work, the series will be extremely valuable both to Bible scholars and to students of history in general.

LETTERS OF A LOYALIST.

Letters of James Murray, Loyalist. Edited by Nina Moore Tiffany, assisted by Susan I. Lesley. 1901. For sale by W. B. Clarke Co., Boston.

Though this volume is "privately printed," let us be forward to declare that the editors stand in no need of holding up a shield for protection. It is small praise to say, as it deserves to be said, that they have done their work exceptionally well. What they furnish as explanatory text is written in a clear and sprightly style, and pervaded by an air of refinement. It is because of a judicious treatment of material in itself not of literary worth, that these pages can be recommended to the general reader as an attractive narrative and a valuable contribution to our colonial history.

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James Murray (1713-1782) was a Scotchman who, being, as Johnson would have it, "caught young," went to London to learn the mysteries of West India trade. Getting his patrimony in 1735, when only twenty-two years of age, he started with it and his sister Barbara, then eighteen, for America to seek his fortune. Upon arriving at Charleston, South Carolina, the good people there tried to dissuade him from pushing on to the Cape Fear region of the other Carolina, his point of destination; but Murray made his way to the newer settlement and cast in his lot there. He would have established himself at New Town (now Wilmington), only there was no house there, so he went to Brunswick for a while, and later, when New Town had taken on a visible shape, he transferred himself to that port. Young Murray had to do with land and negroes, together with pitch, tar, and turpentine, being the proprietor of a general store and keen at trading. Though not in love with his surroundings, he stuck to his calling, and, by the exercise of Scotch thrift, managed to make a living if not to prosper. He became Collector of the Port, and, during Gov. Johnston's term, was a member of the Board of Councillors. These public services, however, were not very exacting or important. There are several letters from North Carolina, which, though meagre in detail, cover a period in respect to which almost any original matter must be welcome to the local historian. Mr. Murray handles the pen after a business fashion. His letters are plain, simple compositions which reflect the life, rude and simple, of those early times.

Barbara, it seems, found a husband in less than two years after their arrival. James Murray had another sister, Elizabeth, a bright, energetic young woman, who came to North Carolina, then went back to Scotland, and in 1749 landed at Boston and began the business there of selling articles of female apparel—what would probably now be called millinery. Elizabeth Murray was married to three successive husbands, Campbell, Smith, and Inman. She may be called the heroine of the narrative. In 1765 James Murray removed from North Carolina to that "poor healthy place," as he had styled it, New England. James Smith, husband to Elizabeth, was then carrying on the business of a sugar baker, and had made a fortune at it. He lived on Queen Street, near his sugar house on Brattle Street. He also owned a mansion house at Brush Hill, Milton. Smith died in 1769. His widow, after tarrying a while in Scotland, returned to Boston, and was married to Ralph Inman, "who kept his coach and liveried servants," and owned a large house in Cambridge. James Murray we find later living on the farm at Brush Hill, and trying his hand at the sugar business, as a successor of his brother-in-law.

The year of this change from North Carolina to Boston was marked by the sacking of Gov. Hutchinson's house, and the loss of those precious manuscripts which the antiquarian takes so much to heart and never ceases to deplore. The agitation that finally culminated in the Revolution was stirring Boston. Murray sided with the King. He was a Tory, or, as the editors prefer to soften the term on the title-page, a Loyalist. His letters upon business and upon family matters necessarily speak, yet guardedly, of the political disturbances to which he was witness. The British regiment of which a portion took part in the Boston massacre, was quartered at Murray's sugar house. An account of the massacre is given in one of these letters.

Mr. Murray had two daughters, Dorothy (1745-1811), who married the Rev. John Forbes, from whom was descended an honored citizen of Milton, the late John Murray Forbes, her grandson. The other daughter was Elizabeth Murray (1756-1837), who was married to Edward Hutchinson Robbins. It was upon the decease of James Murray Robbins, grandson of Elizabeth, that these letters, found in the Brush Hill mansion, could be arranged for being put into print. Murray stayed in Boston until the evacuation by Howe, and sailed for Halifax in company with the troops. There are numerous letters that throw light upon the condition of affairs in the besieged city. One may read an expression of fear and anxiety on the part of loyal adherents to the King, and then, by turning to a letter of Abigail Adams, of identical date, written just outside of Boston, may share in a similar feeling that agitated the patriot women.

The following interesting extract is from a letter written by Elizabeth Murray to her sister Dorothy Forbes. The prisoners referred to were Highlanders, captured on a transport in Boston harbor:

"Boston June 11 1776 Tuesday afternoon, 5 o'clock, not Dressed.

"Dear sister—Fenwick carries you a Barrel of Rum, which is 26/ the Gallon. . . .

"We turned about. and what was [our] surprize to see four Officers with a gaurd. Prudence had told me the Duchess of Gordon's Brother (whose name I knew to be Maxwell) was a Prisoner. That, and the great anxiety I was in for our Uncle, occasioned a wish to speak to them. The first three I had not resolution to stop, but went up to the last and asked the favor of being answered one question, and with a faultering Voice asked if the first Battalion was come out to America. All the Gentlemen turned round when I stopt the last. They informed [me] that Regiment was in England, and to remain there. Joyful sound it was to me. Still trembling so as to be incapable of supporting without Prudence's assistance, I asked if either of them Gentlemen were Capt. Maxwell. A lovely Youth, who appeared to be about twenty, Bowed an acknowledgment of that Name. I enquired for his Mother and Sisters, who he told me he left well in Scotland six weeks ago. Here my voice failed, and we all remained in silence for the space of a minute, and parted without another word. 'Tis in vain to attempt a discription of my emotions, at that moment. We went on, and they went to the jail to take leave of their Men, who are to be sent back into the Country to work for their living and it is expected will join the American army" (page 242).

We remark that, in the eighteenth line of the above extract, the editors have inserted "[me]" as if supplying an accidental omission on the writer's part. But we have no doubt that "inform" was here used in the intransitive sense of 'report' current in the seventeenth century, and which we have found yet lingering colloquially in this country. The absence of the conjunction *that* corroborates this view. The sentence, properly punctuated, would read (as spoken, with a pause after the verb): "They informed: that Regiment was in England," etc.

Of manners and customs there are naturally many glimpses, and something may be gleaned in words and phrases for the Oxford Dictionary. The familiar Southern correlation of "hog and hominy" Dr. Murray quotes first from Bartlett, "about 1860"; but it was in vogue before the Revolution. For example, the patriot, William Hooper, in writing from Baltimore, April 2, 1776, to Dorothy Forbes, employs this American symbol of tranquil content in conjunction with the Scriptural (p. 239). We copy literally, though the sentence is rather disjointed:

"I wish for peace, that we may once more under our own Vines and Fig trees enjoy the blessing of domestick peace, that I might enjoy in my own Cabin, eat my Hogg & Hominee without anything to make me afraid."

James Murray, after leaving Boston, never saw his children again, though he ventured as near them as Newport and New York. A few letters written to them from his place of exile are to be found in this volume. He died at Halifax in 1782. While the female correspondents show (as is proverbial with their sex) a superiority in the art of letter-writing, this steadfast old gentleman remains the central figure of the history, of which these pages treat. The reader is likely to conclude from them and from his portrait, which faces the title-page, that he was a man of estimable qualities, and that his loyalty to his sovereign, viewed at this distance of time, may well be entitled to our respect.

We discharge an obvious duty to any reader of this volume by urging him to pursue the Murray family history, first in Mrs. Lesley's perennially charming 'Recollections of My Mother [Anne Jean (Robbins) Lyman, granddaughter of James Murray],' and Mrs. Hughes's inspiring Memoirs of her father, John Murray Forbes, great-grandson of James Murray. We do not recall, at this moment, any corresponding exhibition of a great family connection; in narratives, too, of quite unpremeditated interlacing, and which, finally, might be extended for other branches without diminishing the honorable esteem exacted by the lives already set before us.

English Coronation Records. Edited by Leopold G. Wickham Legg, New College, Oxford. Whitehall: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901.

As a premonitory symptom of King Edward's coronation, there comes to us a sumptuous volume which deals with royal crownings in the past. One need not expect to find in it any discussion of first principles—of *Dei gratia* versus parliamentary title—for it simply contains an account of the rites and ceremonies by which English sovereigns have been consecrated since the days of the Heptarchy. At least this is the main subject, and all else is accessory to it. Even with such a restricted scope the book contains a great deal of material. In the Middle Ages, when election meant far less than it does now and the formal consecration meant far more, the details of this important ceremony were studied with the utmost care. The *forma et modus* was not stereotyped, but underwent considerable change and development. As time went on, it naturally became more elaborate. Recension after recension was made, until, in the reign of Edward II., the *Liber regalis* appeared. When the short

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rubrics of this ritual have been expanded into the long rubrics which were used at the coronation of Richard II., we get the mediæval coronation service in its perfection; and Mr. Legg, by publishing the full text, puts us in possession of a really important document.

A book of this kind appeals to three distinct classes of persons: to the historian, to the antiquary, and to the lover of pageants. The members of the latter class are numerous, whereas the historians and the antiquaries are comparatively few. Those who look upon the coronation service as a religious rite of high sanctity are fewer still, for, as Mr. Legg implies, the public attitude of mind was considerably affected by the Revolution of 1688. "Since the end of the seventeenth century the service has gradually fallen into neglect, so that even at the present day the great mass of people look forward to it rather as a pageant arranged for their amusement than as the solemn inauguration of their sovereign in the throne of his Government." The antiquary will find much in this volume about the panneter, who carried the salt-cellar and knives to the king's table; about the coronation spoon and the regalia; about the cap of maintenance, and about the King's champion, Dymock of Scrivelsby. The celebrated conservatism of England is still shown in many singular and interesting usages which accompany the solemn act of crowning.

But as the enthusiastic pageant lover will attend the coronation, and as professional antiquaries in America are few, we shall merely indicate one or two features of Mr. Legg's compilation which are likely to attract the notice of the historian. In the first place, there is a long and valuable introduction, wherein may be found a broad survey of English coronations as a whole. Then come the documents which, though largely liturgical in character, comprise some letters and inventories of general interest. Among these may be mentioned two letters from Pope Alexander III. to the Archbishop of York, forbidding him to crown a king of England without leave of the Church of Canterbury; a letter of Pope John XXII. to Edward II., relating the circumstances under which the sacred oil of coronation was given to Thomas Becket; the Court of Claims of Richard II.; and a long list of the articles which were deemed necessary for the coronation of Henry VII. To this inventory of Tudor magnificence is appended the cost of each article; and numerous statistics regarding the wages paid to workmen of all degrees are also furnished. If the approaching coronation is marked by the same splendor which attended that of the triumphant Lancastrian, the ambassadors and sight-seers in attendance will have no cause to grumble at their entertainment.

Although the interest of Mr. Legg's records is largely liturgical, the work deserves to have a place in the library of the historian. The illustrations are well executed, and, in fact, all the mechanical features respond to the dignity of the subject.

Jane Austen, her Homes and her Friends. By Constance Hill. London and New York: John Lane.

When Miss Austen's Elizabeth Bennet walked across country three miles to inquire for her sister Jane, her appearance in the breakfast parlor at Netherfield Park created polite consternation. Miss Bingley expressed her disapproval memorably:

"To walk three miles, or four miles, or five miles, or whatever it is, above her ankles in dirt, and alone, quite alone! What could she mean by it? It seems to me to show an abominable sort of conceited independence, a most country-town indifference to decorum."

Between the moment of Miss Bingley's censure and that of publication of Miss Hill's book, enterprising Elizabeths have won for their sex several inestimable privileges, among them that of going about alone, quite alone! And whether the object be to see a sick sister or to gather material for a book, the unattended maiden pursues her way; exciting neither suspicion nor reproach.

Poor Miss Bingley! The veil hanging between her and a scandalous future was fortunately opaque; she was borne with propriety to the family vault, undisturbed by visions of the dreadful things that maidens would be doing at the end of her century, and (irony of circumstance) doing even in the home of the author of her being. For it was the charm of Jane Austen's rendering of that society of which Miss Bingley was an ornament, that impelled the Misses Hill (unattended) to wander over several counties of England, exploring lovely lanes and secluded parks, putting up at wayside inns, talking eagerly to any sort of person who might furnish a scrap of information about the famous novelist.

In addition to a "determination to find out all that could be known of her life and its surroundings," the ladies wished to "trace the connection between the author's individual experience and that of the personages in her novels." They have succeeded, not only in connecting the real and the fictitious, but in occasionally confounding them, so that a reader not very familiar with Miss Austen's works is not unlikely to be more puzzled than enlightened by some parts of the narration. Nothing of importance is added to the facts about Miss Austen already known; but, by combining with descriptions of places where she lived well-chosen excerpts from her novels and letters, from family papers and published memoirs, her life and character have been presented distinctly, and on the whole vividly. It was at Steventon that the ladies came nearest to personal contact with their idol, when they talked to an old man, named Littlewart, whose mother had been "Miss Jane's" goddaughter. Littlewart pointed out a pump standing over a well from which the Austens used to draw water, and the sight moved the pilgrims to exclamatory delight.

Frankly taking the attitude of an adorer, Miss Hill offers no critical comment, nor does she cite any that is not eulogistic. But she rather skilfully contrives to assure us that, if Miss Austen did not put all she knew about life into her books, she never put anything that she did not know. Her own life even in detail was the foundation for all that she wrote. She moved in a society well ordered and refined, a society that did not encourage violent emotion, and was scrupulous about making calls. By no merit of its own has this society survived itself and remained perhaps more intimately and exactly known than that of any period of our history, but because there happened to be born in its sacred centre a woman with genius perfectly adapted to give to its actual transient existence literary perpetuity. The sketches made by Miss Ellen Hill and reproductions of family portraits add to the value and attractiveness of her sister's text.

A Selection from the Comedies of Marivaux. Edited, with an introduction and notes, by Everett Ward Olmsted, Professor in Cornell University. The Macmillan Co.

Marivaux had to wait until the latter part of the nineteenth century to receive from his own country the full recognition to which he was entitled. Although the subject of many an interesting chapter of literary criticism, he remained one of those minor writers whom the average reader feels content with knowing only by name. About 1880 a reaction set in, and Marivaux began to be better appreciated. In that very year the French Academy proposed his name for one of its literary contests known as the Prizes of Eloquence. In 1882, a huge thesis for the doctorate was presented to the Sorbonne by Mr. Gustave Larroumet, the now famous professor and critic, who deemed 640 pages not too many to exhaust the subject. This was the signal for a revival of interest in Marivaux. All the representative critics fell into line. The theatres gave more attention than heretofore to his plays, and some of his comedies, which belonged to the repertory of the Comédie-Française, have never since disappeared from its boards. Not many weeks ago the Odéon was giving his "L'École des Mères," and Marivaux, whom M. Faguet considers "the most original of the French comic authors" after Molière and Beaumarchais, has come to be to-day as popular as either one of them.

It was about time that the American public should be enabled to know something of so charming and so representative a dramatist, who not merely created a new *genre*, but whose very name gave birth to a new word in the French language, *marivaudage*, defining a thing Marivaux did not invent, but to which he gave a delicacy of form nobody ever equalled, either before or after him. Strangely enough, Marivaux has been until now unedited in this country, and, one may say, practically unknown. Therefore, this selection which Professor Olmsted presents to all students of French supplies a long-felt need.

In many respects it is one of the most satisfactory editions of French classics that have been published for a long time. The choice of the three plays, which are all printed without abridgment, is both judicious and happy. They are the three most famous and characteristic of Marivaux's comedies: "Le Jeu de l'Amour et du Hasard," "Le Legs," and "Les Fausses Confidences." In all three the reader will find all the traits, good and bad, of the author's peculiar style, his sparkling wit, subtle badinage, and also his often far-fetched and odd preciosities. Of course, such a style constitutes a text not always very easy to understand, even for natives, although it is in the main of the best eighteenth-century clearness and purity. The editor has taken pains to ex-

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plain all the passages which are obscure and would be even unintelligible with a mere knowledge of modern French. The notes are not content to explain what the teacher in the class-room might have made clear himself. Perhaps some of Mr. Olmsted's interpretations are open to discussion, as was likely to be the case with an author so fond of queer expressions, and whose vocabulary is half classical and half modern. Thus, for instance, we do not see any reason for giving a seventeenth-century meaning to the word *impertinence* in so simple a sentence as this one: "Allez répondre vos impertinences ailleurs" (p. 3). Nevertheless, the notes, as a whole, will be found to be both helpful for the understanding of the text and instructive in regard to the customs and manners of the society which Marivaux depicts.

The last and not least feature of this edition is the long introduction of 80 pages (it could have been shortened by 20 without loss) in which the editor gives an interesting and complete sketch of Marivaux, not merely as an author of comedies, but as a novelist, a moralist, and a newspaper-writer as well. These latter qualifications, being less known, were well worth dwelling upon, although his 'Marianne' and 'Paysan Parvenu' are no longer read, and his journalistic activity in *Le Spectateur Français* is quite forgotten. For this study Mr. Olmsted has made abundant, intelligent, and discriminating use of all the works published on his author by contemporary writers like Palissot and D'Alembert, or by critics of to-day like Larroumet, Faguet, and Deschamps. His essay is a most fitting introduction to an edition whose conscientious and scholarly qualities will no doubt receive from all lovers of French literature the reward which they deserve.

Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology. Edited by James Mark Baldwin. Volume I. The Macmillan Co. Pp. xxiv, 644.

This volume is the first fruits of more than seven years' generous labor on the part of what the editor terms aptly "an international committee." When complete, it will consist of two volumes of definitions and one volume of bibliography, the last including not only a list of the recognized books under each article, but also a list of the best contributions to technical periodicals. In the first two volumes the articles are of three sorts: first, concise definitions; second, such definitions, with the addition of historical and expository matter running to several hundred words; third, special articles, of from one to five thousand words, which one would more naturally expect to find in an encyclopædia than in a dictionary.

The articles of the last two classes, which make up the bulk of the book, are of great value, and are admirably well done. Not only the beginner but the serious student in philosophy and psychology may well be glad to have at hand a book that contains the history of current philosophical and psychological terms. Philosophy and psychology are, quite as much as law, if not, indeed, as biology, written in a language apart, and the absence of a lexicon has been an anomaly. The present work deals also, or is to deal, with "many of the principal conceptions of ethics, logic, æsthetics, philosophy of religion, mental pathology, anthropology, biology, neurology, physiology, economics, political and social philosophy, philology, physical science, and education," giving technical equivalents of the English terms in French, German, and Italian, and supplementing the text with woodcuts and bibliographies. The limitation of the book lies on the side of the technical terms of Greek and scholastic philosophy. These the editor and his staff have reluctantly refrained from any attempt to deal with exhaustively, though considerable information is given in the text about Greek and scholastic philosophy and its terminology.

The present volume includes articles from *A* to *Law*. The only adverse criticism in general to be made on it is, that it gives the definition of many words which are not technical, and to the definition of which special sciences have as yet no precision to lend. It is out of place to set down in a lexicon of technical terms that Joy is "a pleasurable emotional state accompanying consciousness of gain or advantage to oneself or another." Joy, says Dr. Johnson, is "the passion produced by any happy accident; gladness, exultation"—which, by the way, less strictly than the previous definition, excludes *la joie de vivre*.

An Introduction to the Industrial and Social History of England. By Edward P. Cheyney, Professor of European History in the University of Pennsylvania. The Macmillan Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. x, 317. Illustrated.

This is an excellent book for teaching purposes. If it is not marked by quite so vigorous and easily flowing a style as Mr. Townsend Warner's 'Landmarks in English Industrial History,' which is its only rival, it shows more independence and personal knowledge of the original sources. Moreover, as the work of an American teacher, it is better adapted to the average mental outfit of the American student; and it takes care to include about as much of the political history of England as is absolutely necessary for the understanding of the social development. The first half is much superior to the second. Here Mr. Cheyney is at home in his subject. Many teachers must have felt grateful for the convenient little collections of manorial and municipal documents which he prepared a few years ago for the use of his pupils in the University of Pennsylvania; and the question of mediæval agrarian history is one in which he has himself been keenly interested. He presents the conclusions of the best recent investigations; and where his opinions differ from those of the present reviewer there is doubtless a good deal to be said for Mr. Cheyney's views.

A few slips may be noticed in the interests of the next edition. At page 117, line 10, "town" should be "university." The reference on page 124 to the non-existence of villenage in Kent should be more guarded—see Vinogradoff (p. 205) and Trevelyan, 'Age of Wycliffe' (p. 219). The phrase on page 139 about the appointment of bishops countenances the common, but mistaken, notion that the Reformation introduced a great practical change in this respect; but see Stubbs, section 386. And on page 143, line 10 from bottom, Bryan C. J. should be Danby. Where the book is relatively weak is in the later chapters, especially the last two. The history of Factory Legislation, Trade Unionism, and Coöperation is important enough; but it is by no means the whole of the industrial history of England in the nineteenth century. This is a weakness not peculiar to Professor Cheyney's book, but marks a good deal of the teaching of industrial or economic history. But if the treatment of the post-mediæval centuries is to compare in thoroughness with the treatment of the mediæval, there must be far more attention given to the distribution of the great industries and to the effect of mechanical advances in transportation and production than has hitherto been usual.

The illustrations have been selected with judgment, and most of them have the great merit of illustrating. But the Hall at York, of which pictures are given on pages 60, 62, in the sections on the Gild Merchant, is the hall of the sixteenth century "Company of Merchants, Mercers, Grocers, Apothecaries and Ironmongers," which *may* indeed, be descended from an earlier gild merchant, though that remains to be proved. And in the Trade Routes map, on page 85, the absence of boundaries to Muscovy may cause some natural misapprehension; while the insertion of "German" before "Empire" and the total absence of Constantinople might give just offence to the soul of Mr. Freeman.

Classification, Theoretical and Practical. I. The Order of the Sciences; II. The Classification of Books. By Ernest Cushing Richardson. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901. 12mo, pp. 248.

We should hesitate to recommend this book to a beginner in the subject; but one who knows what is usually said about it will find Mr. Richardson's absolute independence of all that, refreshing. He does not argue much, but his dicta are dynamitic. For instance, he holds that, in order to be a subject of classification, a thing must have separate existence. This is sufficiently surprising; but upon this statement immediately follows another even more radical, to wit: "Ideas are therefore the subjects of classification just as much as anything else not only because they have a material as well as a spiritual substance but because they are individual separate things existing in a certain place at a certain time in a certain definable nature." (The non-punctuation is not ours.) Whether the man who writes so has read, may be doubted, but he has certainly thought. The same fact is evinced in his definitions. "*Likeness*, as the ground of the putting together of things in classification is, in brief terms, interchangeability." If this writer would only subject himself to some Socratic dialogues with a logical sharp, we do not doubt that his analytic powers would ultimately become very useful to his profession of librarian. But it cannot be that he should at present produce a good classification of subjects of books, because he would be governed by conceptions that not only are unfamiliar to those who would consult his catalogue, but are also untenable in themselves. As for his classification of sciences, we may possibly have seen worse ones.

It is, however, the Appendix to the book, which fills more than half again as many pages as the body of the text, that is the really useful part of it. This consists of

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lists of references to systems of classification of sciences and of books. Of course, it cannot be complete. There is, for instance, no reference to the Century Dictionary under *Science*. The tables do not evince great learning, but they must prove highly useful.

The Elements of Architecture, Collected by Henry Wotton, Kt., from the best Authors and Examples. Springfield, Mass.: The F. A. Bassette Co. 1901.

At the instance of Mr. Guy Kirkham, Architect, there has been reprinted in facsimile, from the edition of 1651, that part of the 'Reliquiæ Wottonianæ' which relates to architecture. Preceding the special title quoted above, comes a facsimile of the quaint general title of the work, which reads, 'Reliquiæ Wottonianæ, or, A Collection of Lives, Letters, Poems; with Characters of Sundry Personages; and Other Incomparable Pieces of Language and Art. By the curious Pensil of the ever Memorial Sr. Henry Wotton, Kt., Late Provost of Eton Colledg. London, 1651.' The elements of architecture were, in the days of Wotton, a part of the education of a gentleman; and as a gentleman, and not as a practitioner of the art, he approaches his subject. He had travelled in Italy, he had read his Vitruvius; his equipment was complete. What he wrote, especially if read in its original setting of curious old type, with every noun capitalized and every important word italicised, is, at least for an architect, matter most diverting. His strange embodiment, in unfamiliar language, of ideas full of common sense, yet of singular inexactness, is the kind of thing one rarely comes upon nowadays. As an example of his style and matter, let us quote the opening sentences: "In *Architecture* as in all other *Operative* Arts, the *End* must direct the *Operation*. The *End* is to build well. *Wel-building* hath three Conditions, *Commodity*, *Firmnesse*, and *Delight*." He proceeds with a discourse upon "The *Seat* and the *Work*," and, in describing the construction of the work he reaches the most delightful heights of inconsequence.

Your bibliophile needs Sir Henry Wotton in an early edition, but the busy architect will be content to divert the tedium of a half-hour's enforced idleness by perusing his thoughts on architecture in so excellent a reprint as that of Mr. Guy Kirkham.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden, R. M. Shakspere's Tragedy of Julius Cæsar. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co. 25 cents.
Animal Experimentation. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Arber, Edward. The Pope Anthology. (Selections from the English Poets.) Henry Frowde.
Ashley, R. L. The American Federal State: A Text-Book in Civics. Macmillan. $2.
Avebury, Lord. The Scenery of England, and the Causes to Which It Is Due. Macmillan. $2.50.
Babbitt, Irving. Ernest Renan's Souvenirs d'Enfance et de Jeunesse. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Boutmy, Emile. Eléments d'une Psychologie Politique du Peuple Américain. Paris: Armand Colin. 4 fr.
Bowdoin, W. G. James McNeill Whistler. M. F. Mansfield & Co.
Burton, T. E. Financial Crises and Periods of Industrial and Commercial Depression. D. Appleton & Co. $1.40.
Catalogo Generale della Libreria Italiana dall' anno 1847 a tutto il 1899. Parts 10, 11: De Franceschi—Dziatzko. Milan: Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Colquhoun, A. R. The Mastery of the Pacific. Macmillan. $4.
Dequesne, S. A. A Serpent's Feast. The Manuscript Co.
Doyle, A. C. The War in South Africa: Its Cause and Conduct. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Finck, H. T. Romantic Love and Personal Beauty. New ed. Macmillan.
Flower, Elliott. Policeman Flynn. Century Co. $1.50.
Gullens, F. B. Where Magnolias Bloom. Abbey Press. 50 cents.
Hammond, C. E. Outlines of Textual Criticism Applied to the New Testament. New ed. Henry Frowde.
Helmolt, H. F. The History of the World, Vol. I.: Pre-History—America and the Pacific Ocean. Dodd, Mead & Co. $6.
Huneker, James. Melomaniacs. Scribners. $1.50.
Ingres, Maxime. Cours Complet de la Langue Française, Vol. I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
Jackson, D. C. and J. P. An Elementary Book on Electricity and Magnetism and their Applications. Macmillan. $1.40.
Johnston, Mary. Audrey. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
King, Pauline. American Mural Painting. Boston: Noyes, Platt & Co.
Long, J. L. Naughty Nan. Century Co. $1.50.
Marquis, G. H. Fairview's Mystery. Abbey Press. 75 cents.
Murray, Gilbert. Euripidis Fabulae. Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d.
Odenheimer, Cordelia P. The Phantom Caravan. Abbey Press. $1.
Patton, Abel. "Har Lampkins." Abbey Press. $1.
Paulsen, Friedrich. Immanuel Kant, his Life and Doctrine. Scribners. $2.50.
Payot, Jules. Die Erziehung des Willens. Leipzig: R. Voigtländer.
Phillips, Stephen. Ulysses. Macmillan. $1.25.
Piffard, H. The Giant's Gate. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Pinson, W. W. In White and Black. The Saalfield Pub. Co. $1.50.
Pratt, H. S. A Course in Invertebrate Zoölogy. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Priest, G. M. Riehl's Das Spielmannskind und der stumme Ratsherr. American Book Co. 35c.
Rigg, J. M. Select Pleas, Starrs, and Other Records from the Rolls of the Exchequer of the Jews. (Selden Society.) London: Bernard Quaritch.
Stechman, Otto. Unrequited Love. Abbey Press. $1.
Stechman, Otto. Whither Are We Drifting? Abbey Press. $1.
Thomas, W. Le Poète Edward Young. Paris: Hachette & Cie.
Valdés, A. P. José. Brentano's. $1.25.
Wharton, Edith. The Valley of Decision. 2 vols. Scribners. $2.
Wilkins, A. S. M. Tulli Ciceronis Rhetorica. Henry Frowde. 3s.

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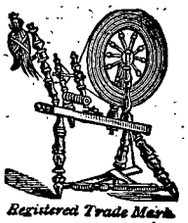

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